

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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Educational News and Editorial Comment

HARVARD SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

The organization of the Harvard Division of Education was one of the first steps taken in this country in the direction of a scientific study of school problems. In 1891 President Eliot brought to Harvard Paul Hanus, then a young teacher in Denver, to give courses in the "History and Art of Education." There was much skepticism at Harvard and elsewhere about the possibility of carrying on such courses in a way to justify university acceptance of them. People knew about normal-school courses in education but not about advanced university courses.

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It is a source of satisfaction to all the professional co-workers of the faculty of education at Harvard that the division which was established in 1891 is to be expanded into a graduate school with a great endowment. Professor Hanus is especially to be congratulated at this consummation of his pioneering. To President Eliot, that seer of American education whose clear vision foresaw the needs and possibilities of the science of education, the new school is to be a memorial and a monument.

The official announcement is as follows:

The establishment of a Graduate School of Education in Harvard University has been assured by gifts and pledges applicable to that purpose in connection with the Harvard Endowment Fund campaign.

The school will be devoted to the training of teachers and school administrators and to research in problems of teaching and administration. It will be established on a graduate basis and will thus take its place on a level with the other professional schools of the University, in the service of a great profession.

The new school will be in effect a reorganization and enlargement of the courses in education hitherto given by a Division of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences. It will have a separate faculty, and will offer the degrees of Master and Doctor upon the recommendation of this faculty.

The initial resources of the school, apart from tuition fees, will be an endowment of \$2,000,000 of which \$500,000 has been provided from funds already held by the University and \$1,500,000 has been raised by public subscription, including \$500,000 pledged by the General Education Board. The latter gift and the rest of the endowment not otherwise named by donors will be merged as the Charles William Eliot Fund of the Graduate School of Education.

The school will be opened at the beginning of the next academic year. An announcement of the courses of instruction and of the requirements for admission and graduation will shortly be issued.

On February 17 the Committee appointed by the Board of Overseers to visit the Division of Education will give a dinner at the Harvard Union to celebrate the establishment of the new school. President Lowell, President Emeritus Eliot, representatives of the Faculty of the School and of the General Education Board, and Dr. Smith, commissioner of Education for the Commonwealth, will speak. The Chairman of the Visiting Committee for the Division of Education will preside. This celebration of the establishment of the new school will be an occasion for presenting to its friends a full statement of its purposes and methods.

CITY SUPERINTENDENCY VERSUS UNIVERSITY PROFESSORSHIP

Superintendent Spaulding of Cleveland has resigned to accept a professorship at Yale. Within the last year several men have made a similar choice and for reasons not unlike those stated by Mr. Spaulding in his letter of resignation. University departments

are expanding rapidly and will doubtless draw more men from prominent school positions; their task is much simplified by a recognition on the part of school men of the inviting character of the opportunity which they can offer. One is compelled to ask, however, what is to become of the superintendencies of the great cities if they do not offer to men of the largest training the most attractive openings for work.

The plain fact is that the superintendency of any great city school system is coming to be an almost impossible job. The superintendent is hampered in most cases by board action which interferes constantly with his expert professional efforts. He is harassed by the politicians and assailed by the busybodies of the community. He has to stand at short intervals for re-election or rejection, and his salary is so much below that of a moderately good business position that it is difficult to find any real justification for his attempting to serve the community.

Communities will have to learn the value of their school managers by such experiences as the withdrawal of Mr. Spaulding. His letter to the board is so clear and important in the light which it sheds on the school situation in all great cities that it is quoted in full as follows:

For more than a month I have had under consideration an invitation from the officials of Yale University to go there at the expiration of my four-year term here, September, 1921, as professor of school administration and head of a department of education in the graduate school—a professorship and a position that have just been created as part of a plan of developing at Yale a strong graduate department of education. Coupled with this invitation was an urgent request that I assume the work there in September, 1920, should I become free to do so.

Careful consideration and investigation of the plans proposed and the opportunities offered have resulted in the belief that, over a period of years, I should be able to render at Yale University a larger and farther-reaching service to public education than I could in a strictly administrative "field" position, such as I now occupy.

This belief is strengthened by the practically universal concurrence of the considerable number of personal and professional friends, of large vision and sound judgment, with whom I have advised in the matter.

Furthermore, there are many conditions connected with the proposed development at Yale which makes it important that the work be entered upon next September rather than a year later. Hence, I am bringing the matter formally to the attention of your honorable board.

Lest the bare statement of my conclusion that the larger service lies at Yale University rather than in the Cleveland superintendency should leave your honorable board with the suspicion that I have not given due consideration to the opportunities for service here, I want to state briefly what I think of Cleveland as a field for constructive educational work.

Cleveland presents most exceptional opportunities. Indeed, considering the magnitude and the variety of opportunities for educational extensions, improvements and new developments; considering the uniformly generous financial support, and the soundly progressive educational demands of the community; considering the high degree of efficiency and the growing professional spirit and ambition of the large teaching force; considering the rare and varied expert ability of the superintendent's staff, and especially the co-operative spirit that characterizes that staff; considering the efficiency, the co-operation and hearty support of the other departments, the director's and clerk-treasurer's; considering the intelligent and generous support of the public press, which has been of inestimable value to the administration; and, finally, considering the attitude, the strength and the high and single educational purposes of the board of education, I am convinced that no other superintendency, city or state, in this country, equals the Cleveland superintendency in the possibilities of service that it offers its incumbent. Certainly there is no superintendency that I should prefer to this, either on account of opportunities offered, or on account of the personal and professional relationships involved.

Over against these opportunities, however, unsurpassed of their kind, Yale University promises opportunities likewise unsurpassed of their kind; opportunities for the professional preparation not only of teachers, but especially of educational leaders—superintendents, principals, supervisors, and normal-school and college teachers.

The most fundamental and pressing need of American education today, a need that promises to become even more acute in the immediate future, is that of competent professional leadership. There is need of many more and much better prepared leaders than are developing either through experience or as products of existent training institutions.

The opportunity of having a part in the professional preparation of hundreds of those who will immediately determine the educational ideals, policies, and plans of procedure throughout the country in the next generation, appeals to me as an opportunity for farther-reaching educational service than that of helping to determine for the immediate present the ideals, policies, and plans in any single city, however large and influential.

Moreover, I feel a measure of responsibility for trying to make generally available through publications—which it is impossible to prepare under the stress of the executive duties of a superintendency—and for transmitting directly to others whatever of value may have been developed through my varied experiences of twenty-five years' continuous service as a school superintendent.

Furthermore, I cannot be unmindful of the strong probability that I should be able, at best, to give to large city supervision—unquestionably the most wearing and wearying work in all the educational field—but comparatively few more years of such vigorously aggressive service as conditions universally demand.

Under the far less trying and nerve-wearing conditions of a position like that at Yale, there are reasonable probabilities of a much longer period of usefulness.

When certain large problems that are now pressing, such as legislation providing for permanently adequate financial support of the schools, the building program, new salary schedules, and certain important revisions and adjustments of courses of study are solved or well on the way to solution, as these should be by the end of this school year, conditions will probably be as favorable for a change in the superintendency as they are likely to be at any future time.

The changes in organization that were instituted when I took up the work here two and one-half years ago have become well established and have demonstrated their fitness to conditions; the new personalities introduced into important administrative and supervisory positions have demonstrated their efficiency and have become acquainted with the personalities and conditions with which they have to work; a spirit of harmony and earnest professional co-operation prevails generally throughout the system.

I have laid bare to you, at what may perhaps seem undue length, the important and the only important considerations which have moved me to present to your honorable board my resignation of the superintendency of the Cleveland public schools, the same to take effect on July 31, 1920, that you may consider the acceptance of it in the same spirit in which I am tendering it.

I am asking you to accept it, not that I may take a position immediately more advantageous to myself—indeed the proposed change involves a considerable financial sacrifice—but that I may engage in what promises to be a larger service.

EFFECTS OF SCHOOL SURVEYS

The resignation of Superintendent Spaulding brought out a series of facts which help to answer a question which one often hears raised: What influence do surveys have? The answer often given is discouraging to those who believe that scientific investigations ought to show the way in which reforms should be worked out. The issue of the *Plain Dealer* which announced Mr. Spaulding's resignation is authority for the following statement:

Dr. Spaulding's first work after accepting the Cleveland superintendency was the self-imposed task of studying the Cleveland school survey with the idea, which he later fulfilled, of shaping his policies to meet the special needs of the Cleveland schools.

Among recommendations of the survey which he has carried out are the following:

- Rewriting of the board of education rules to simplify procedure.
- Developing professional leadership by bringing into the system experts in various fields of education.
- Definitely locating and assigning authority in the system.
- Adding professional stimulus to the teaching staff by the development of the school of education and by adding a summer school to it.
- Relieving the formality and conservatism of the teaching methods by introducing a more varied curriculum.
- Appointing principals on a merit rather than a length-of-service basis.

Standardizing the employment of teachers by developing an employment bureau and raising salaries.
Employing married teachers on the regular schedules.
Appointing a supervisor for kindergartens.
Establishing training for children with defective speech.
Establishment of a psychological clinic for diagnosis of children before assignment to special classes.
Development of Americanization work and the establishment of a department of extension work.

Among other things which Dr. Spaulding developed are:

A reference and research department for the study of school problems.
Special class departments.
Vocational education of a wider scope.
Domestic science courses on a productive basis.
The medical inspection department.

He established:

Education for pupils of all ages.
Military training.
The educational council of teachers and supervisory officials as a clearing house for teachers' suggestions.
Classes for rehabilitation of soldiers.
Co-operative relations with the city in the development of educational policies at Hudson farm, the girls' school and the sanatorium at Warrensville.
Twelve new junior high schools, and enlarged the scope of work.

CONSERVATISM IN HISTORY

The American Historical Association at its recent meeting listened to a committee report which was in some respects the most radical that has been presented to that association in years. This report recommended that ancient history be dropped from the list of required high-school courses. It also recommended that a course in social science be put into the curriculum of the senior year. Other changes were recommended which a layman in history ought perhaps not to attempt to summarize. These changes seem to be in the nature of a return to the general history which was so emphatically ejected some years ago. At all events, if the report did not recommend general history, it certainly advocated certain broad inclusive courses to take the place of the ancient history which is to be abandoned and of the long sequence of courses recommended by earlier committees but seldom taken by American students in the high schools offering them.

The association did not accept the report. Objections were raised to almost every part of it and from almost every point of view. It seems fair to say that the historians as a group were not ready for the radical changes proposed.

There would be no justification for an attempt to settle any of the matters under discussion in an editorial written by one who

knows as little about history as the present writer, but one statement may be ventured. The failure of the American Historical Association to decide what ought to be done will certainly not blockade a movement which is in fact going forward in the schools. If history will not give up its effort to carry Freshmen back to the beginning of the world, the demands of modern life are sure to step in and put an end to the absurd practice of making ancient history the chief historical course of the high school. If historians are going to continue to regard themselves as the guardians of the social studies in high schools, they will have to give up the hope of spending three-fourths or even one-half of the time of students in laying what they please to call the foundation. The American student must be taught something about the community which is all around him. Either this instruction in modern social conditions must be worked out apart from history or the historians must begin to act quickly.

It is by no means clear that the historians will not take care of their own subject most intelligently by supporting a program which allows social science to develop as an independent subject. Such an experiment would allow history to lay out its sequence of courses without curtailing social studies and would at the same time emphasize the fact that there are other proper introductions to the study of modern conditions than the review of Greek and Roman civilizations. Such a separation of interests instead of curtailing the influence of the historians might in fact augment it. The historians would then be free from the complications which now beset them when they attempt to deal in detail with commercial geography and economics which the present committee has included in its history program.

HIGH-SCHOOL FRATERNITIES

The regulation of high-school societies appears to be no simple task even after state laws have been enacted giving boards of education power to deal with them. The following statement from Dubuque, Iowa, indicates the method adopted by the high school of that city:

The board of education has adopted a policy of recognition, regulation, and restriction with reference to high-school fraternities and sororities. This was decided on at a meeting held Monday after noon.

The question of high-school fraternities has long been a troublesome and perplexing one and has received a great deal of careful thought and attention on the part of the members of the board.

The state law covering the case of all societies in the high school, both secret and non-secret, states that no pupil may become a member of any such fraternity or society, "except such societies or associations as are sanctioned by the directors of such schools."

Under the provisions of this last clause, the board, after a thorough canvassing of the entire situation, has voted, as at least a tentative and experimental measure, to give these societies recognition, and then to hold them to strict accountability and under close control.

The resolution as passed is as follows:

Resolved, That the Board of Education of the Independent School District of Dubuque hereby authorizes and sanctions, in accordance with the power conferred upon it by Section 2872a of the School Laws of Iowa, the existence in the Dubuque High School of the following so-called fraternities and sororities:

Alpha Omega (F), Phi Delta (F), Phi Sigma (F), Zeta Beta Psi (S), Iota Beta Phi (S), under the following conditions and restrictions:

1. That a complete roster of the names and addresses of each and every member of the above-named fraternities and sororities be filed with the Board of Education at least twice each school year, viz., at the opening of school in September and at the beginning of the second semester in February.
2. That the solicitation or pledging of grammar-school pupils—public, private, or parochial—is forbidden.
3. That the wearing of pins or other insignia of membership, or of pledge to membership, in and around the high school is forbidden.
4. That the members of said fraternities and sororities are to refrain from bringing their organizations as such into the social, athletic, literary, class, or other activities of the high school, except as may hereafter be provided by any rules promulgated by the Board for the organization of a Congress or Federation of Societies.
5. That all forms of initiation, tending to bring the high school into ridicule or to subject it to criticism, are subject to censorship, review, and even to forfeiture of the continued right of any fraternity to exist in the high school.
6. That unbecoming conduct or low scholarship, believed to be the result of connection with such secret societies, will be viewed as evidence of the undesirability of such societies and may result in the nullification of the right to exist.

In general the Board of Education, while authorizing temporarily the existence of such fraternities and sororities as are named above, reserves to itself the right and the privilege of revoking the sanction herein granted, whenever in its judgment the interests and well-being of the high school demand it.

In supplement to this, Trustee Reugnitz with the authorization of the Board is at work on a plan for the organization of a federation of all societies in the high school, both secret and non-secret, which shall make for unity and high-school spirit, promote democracy, and exercise a general control over all auxiliary associations.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

The following item from Rochester, New York, indicates the spread of a movement which has recently been taken up in a number of school systems:

The board of education today ordered that pupils in junior and senior high schools should be excused during regular school hours for religious instruction by any established religious body incorporated under the laws of the state on written request of parents or guardians and upon the religious bodies filing with the board satisfactory evidence of the adequacy of its facilities and competency of its instructions.

THE ARMY AS AN EDUCATIONAL AGENCY

The army and the navy are carrying out, now that they have returned to a peace footing, elaborate plans of education which were authorized before we went into the war but were not at that time worked out. The educational interests of these departments received a powerful impetus from the experiences of the war. Some idea of the spirit of the movement can be gathered from the following extracts from a statement made by Major General Haan under the authorization of the War Department:

Early in 1919, the War Department, actuated by a deep sense of responsibility felt towards the millions of men brought into the service during the war, as well as by the astounding facts as to illiteracy and physical condition of the young men of the country as shown by draft statistics, and the excellent work done by the Commission on Education and Special Training, had conceived an army built up on a new plan. It was proposed to make the army not only a military force to be trained and ready in time of national emergency, but a great educational institution where young men of the best mental, moral, and physical conditions, and with the highest ideals of patriotic citizenship would be produced.

This plan was realized, in a measure, when the Congress appropriated the sum of \$2,000,000 to be devoted to this purpose during the fiscal year 1920. Accordingly, in September instructions went forward to the commanding generals of all divisional camps and of territorial departments, who at once appointed on their staffs officers known as Education and Recreation Officers to assume direct charge of the work. Each officer has associated with him at least one civilian expert in educational affairs, who furnishes assistance and advice in establishing schools and manual training classes.

But it remained for the Camp Taylor Convention, called by the Secretary of War in order that the work in general might be co-ordinated and rough places smoothed out, to show that the army is now in reality a great training school where the mothers of our young Americans will be glad to see their boys go. This idea of the army as a vast university in khaki is admittedly hard to conceive, but nevertheless the thing has been accomplished right before our eyes.

No longer is the army merely concerned with the making of a recruit into an efficient fighting man, by giving him the prescribed system of military training only for a few hours of the day and leaving him almost entirely to his own resources for the remainder of the day. It now assumes responsibility for the entire twenty-four hours of his day, and sees that every portion is gainfully spent in useful study or helpful recreation. In the soldier's life, education and recreation now have equal places with military training, and are definitely scheduled in the programme of daily work.

Under the system of education now in force it is possible for men to receive instruction so as to fit themselves to be carpenters, blacksmiths, pharmacists, dental assistants, engine workers, mechanics, draftsmen, stenographers, truck gardeners, motor drivers, repair men, telegraphers, radio and telephone operators, etc. Such educational subjects as English, geography, mathematics, United States history and modern languages are also taught. Of course, at the present stage of the game it is not possible to give instruction in all subjects at any one camp or post, but so far as practicable the desires of the enlisted man as to the courses to be taken by him will be met.

A certificate will be given by the local commanding officer or school officer to each man who successfully completes a course, indicating that he has satisfactorily completed the course studied. A standard War Department certificate will later be adopted, and the possession of such a certificate by a soldier who has been discharged with a character of "Excellent" will be sufficient recommendation to a civilian employer as to the qualifications of the discharged soldier for employment.

On the other hand, it is highly important that the men themselves take the thing seriously and realize that the Government is concerned, not only in making trained soldiers of them, but also in making of them self-supporting and self-respecting members of the communities to which they will return on discharge.

This work is unique in the history of the Government, and highly important in showing the trend of the army in facing the new problems developed by the World War. It will result in making the army in time of peace a more valuable factor in the life of the nation by producing men of best possible type, having a good general education, possessing a useful trade, but, above all, thoroughly trained in moral character and the duties and responsibilities of good citizenship.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS AND OTHER MATTERS

It is seldom that a series of resolutions proposed to an educational body have in them the drive that is exhibited in a series of tentative resolutions presented at the last meeting of the Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York. The committee which prepared the resolutions also prepared lists of references in support of the position taken and made comments in explanation of the terms used. Three of the resolutions are of enough general interest to quote with the comments added by the committee; the references are omitted.

Resolution 2.—The eight-four scheme of school organization has no longer any excuse for being, and should be replaced at once by the 6-3-3 plan. This should mean vastly more than a mere regrouping of pupils. The Junior High School should have a course of study thoroughly adapted to the peculiar needs of children in early adolescence, a course that should include vocational education, general science, business methods and business mathematics, general social science of an elementary grade and a foreign language offered as an elective. The Senior High School should be a modern democratic institution, requiring as a preparation for citizenship elementary courses in ethics, psychology, economics and sociology. The present high-school courses in algebra, geometry and trigonometry should be replaced by elective courses in first-year, second-year and third-year mathematics, and the whole should be based upon the first-hand experience of high-school pupils.

Comments: The term "vocational education" is here used to indicate the utilization of vocations for educational purposes, not the training of pupils for special industries.

The eight-year elementary school was adopted, with modifications, straight from Prussia. It never was and never will be suited to democratic needs. The period from twelve to fifteen years of age is essentially a transition stage when pupils are neither children nor youth. Approximately fifty-two percent of school children leave school during this time and the chief reason for this exodus is the fact that they are not interested in the school work offered but are intensely interested in life outside the schoolhouse.

"Two-thirds of the things which are taught in our high schools and colleges have little effect in making people better citizens." [Pres. Hadley of Yale, in a recent speech.]

Resolution 3.—The function of vocational education should be clarified to the end that its pedagogical, psychological, anthropological and sociological significance may be fully understood and properly emphasized. There is no intrinsic opposition between cultural training and vocational training.

Comments: "Children who have the chance for practical work have a greater interest in books and are more intelligent in their use." [Dopp.]

"We can combine the vocational and the non-vocational—if we will, and each be the better for the other." [Davenport.]

"The deepest and most educative experiences are wordless contact with things." [Gesell.]

"The most natural and effectual mental discipline possible for any man arises from setting him to earnest and constant thought about the things he daily does, sees, and handles, and all their connected relations and interests." [Said by Johnathan B. Turner of Illinois in 1853.]

Resolution 4.—Our industry is now very largely organized on a Prussian plan, and we question whether democracy can long endure half democratic and half Prussian. It is, therefore, exceedingly important that all educational institutions promote the democratization of industry by such indirect means as lies within their power.

Comments: "Democratization of industry" does not mean doing away with capitalists. It does mean that the instinct to get and have is only one of several

instincts that should find expression in industrial enterprises. It does mean that the desire for self-government and the creative impulses should be utilized, and may be utilized, to the profit of both employer and employee.

EDUCATING AMERICANS ABOUT AMERICA

The National Parks Association, with headquarters at 1512 H Street, Washington, D. C., is organized for the purpose of attracting the attention of Americans to the public parks of the country. The association intends to publish descriptions of the various parks and asks for advice in getting this material into the schools.

Some extracts from the letter accompanying the first circular are reproduced herewith in the hope that teachers who are interested may offer suggestions to the officers of the association. The paragraphs from the letter are as follows:

Will you kindly examine the enclosed circular of the National Parks Association and Publication No. 1? You will see that the association is, in a large sense, an educational institution; that is, it purposes to act as a promotive medium between the professional teacher and the large body of the people who want to understand and appreciate the meaning of scenery and the wild life of America.

But the association's greater field is in the schools, and it is about this I want to ask your advice.

We should have, to begin with, a large membership of teachers. From that, perhaps, the rest will flow, for when teachers become interested in the popularized science publications, then should follow the really practical suggestions, right from the field itself.

But how shall we get these members? Three dollars is perhaps too large a membership fee to attract teachers; but the publications are expensive, and, being a young organization, the association has yet no funds for propaganda purposes.

The next publication, on the new Zion National Park in Utah, covers the whole of the plateau region in a way never done before even in the books, and it is thoroughly popularized and interesting. But how shall we get it into teachers' hands?

EDUCATION OF ENGLISH WAGE-EARNERS

A vigorous pronouncement by the general secretary of the Workers' Educational Association of England indicates that when the new law for continuation education goes into full effect in England there will have to be a liberal admixture of economic and general education included in the courses offered. It is important that we in this country should have our minds turned in the direction indicated by this demand for a broad education. The statement in full is as follows:

Hitherto the working class has never been seriously consulted as to what it wants from education or what it believes ought to be the true aims of education. Governments, contending parties, educational institutions, and influential sections of the community having definite views as to the place of the working class in their scheme of life have conceded to it a minimum of what they conceived to be for its good.

As a natural result, the education provided for working people has been very limited in quantity, while the system has been so permeated by an atmosphere of commercialism as seriously to vitiate the quality.

The same spirit can be discerned in many of the utterances of those who are now demanding educational reform. Their dominating idea is still that of increasing our industrial efficiency. The working class is still to fit in with preconceived notions as to its proper place in a generally accepted scheme of things, and educational reform is only to concern itself with equipping the workers to become more efficient bees in the industrial hive.

The working class has its own peculiar educational needs. The material prizes of life are limited, and only a few can win them. After all the prizes have been won, there still remains the great mass for whom under existing conditions there are no material prizes other than work and wages. These form the working class, and as such have educational needs peculiarly their own.

Since, under the existing state of society, the vast majority are wage-earners, education must give them a knowledge and understanding of the social and economic forces that mould and mar their lives. Only through a fuller knowledge and a clearer understanding of these can the workers attain to economic and social freedom. Further, since the experiences of the past ages are embodied in history, science, art, and literature, education must equip the working class to share in its racial heritage.

Labour wants from education health and full development for the body, knowledge and truth for the mind, fineness for the feelings, good-will towards its kind, and, coupled with this liberal education, such a training as will make its members efficient, self-supporting citizens of a free self-governing community.

Such an education, and only such an education, will meet the needs of the individual, the class, the nation, and the race.

NEWS ITEMS FROM SECONDARY SCHOOLS

HIGH-SCHOOL FACULTY MEETINGS

Hillsdale, Michigan.—"High-school faculty meetings that count professionally are rare." Hillsdale planned a series of meetings based upon the type which Superintendent S. J. Gier has been using successfully for general faculty gatherings. Committee consisting of principal and two teachers selects subjects for investigation and reports, keeping the local situation constantly in mind. These were assigned either to individuals or to small committees.

Meetings at the homes of faculty members, second Monday of each school month. Committee plans a pot-luck supper; costs equalized among those present, never exceeding 35 cents.

First meeting a discussion of means for promoting growth among teachers in service, the significance of the "marks" for scholarship, law and curve of probability explained. Free discussion. Second program devoted to reports of facts and methods observed in excursions into neighboring schools. Third gathering a report on social activities in the high school, their organization, supervision, etc. Held in connection with the domestic science rooms and gymnasium of high school. Fourth meeting a typical program of social activities suitable for a high-school party to illustrate methods of entertainment possible in place of the dance and other stereotyped forms of entertainment.

Other topics: supervised or directed study; the credit system in the Hillsdale High School; athletics in the high school; standardized tests and measurements; discipline, what it is, ways and means of obtaining; study of wages and social living conditions of teachers of Hillsdale: (a) in comparison with teachers of other cities of similar size; (b) in comparison with other professions and trades within the city.

GUY FOX

STUDENTS' HANDBOOK

Theodore Roosevelt High School, Alton, Illinois.—Handbook for the convenience of students, containing information for parents as well, published by the board of education. Introduction gives a brief history of the high school since its establishment in Alton. Part I contains information for new students, such as instructions for enrolment, directions for finding recitation rooms, cloakrooms, etc. Part II gives the requirements for graduation and explains the curricula, of which there are three groups, General High School, Vocational, and College Entrance, with five curricula under each group. Part III has descriptions of the various departments of instruction and the courses in the subjects offered. Part IV deals with the student activities of the school such as student council, debates and public speaking, literary societies, publications, musical organizations, and athletics. Part V describes school duties and customs such as regulations regarding assembly and

study halls, the library, the cafeteria, class organizations, care of building, time-honored customs, recognitions, and honors. The book is bound in the school colors, red and gray.

B. C. RICHARDSON

GENERAL OFFICE PRACTICE AND COMMERCIAL CLUB

East High School, Aurora, Illinois.—It has been our experience for some years to have a few students who have finished their stenographic course return for post-graduate work or to wait for a desirable position. Since they have considerable time to spend on shorthand and typewriting, they are assigned to what we call "general office work." We accept typing and stencil work from all departments of the school, local office, and from outside individuals and organizations, i.e., typing parts for plays for the Aurora Dramatic Club, parent-teacher notices for all the schools, church notices, Woman's Club literature, and like material from various sources. It is splendid training for these students to check in, assign, correct, and deliver such work. We receive compensation for all outside work and at the end of the year our commercial fund is no meager one.

All office-practice students assist the secretary in the school office and if students of high standing, they are excused from classes to assist business men in the absence of stenographers.

To stimulate further interest, we have organized a commercial club which meets every Thursday afternoon after school. Reports are given on topics of current interest, commercial conditions, and experiences of stenographers. The members visit factories and business houses. Local business men address the club and acquaint the members with conditions they are sure to meet when they enter the business world.

VERONICA G. O'NEIL

News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

NEW AND SPECIALIZED COURSES IN EDUCATION

During recent years a number of the professions, such as law and medicine, have commanded genuine respect of the public because of their thorough mastery of their respective fields. If one traces the growth of the influence of these professions, one finds it accompanied by two very important changes in the training of the men who enter them. First, the time required for thoroughgoing preparation has gradually increased until three years in addition to the baccalaureate degree are required in most universities. In addition, the medical student serves for a year or more as interne in a hospital where both his practical and his theoretical training are continued. Secondly, the curricula of progressive professional schools have included a larger number of highly specialized courses each year as contrasted with general omnibus courses. The purpose of these changes has been to give students a definite and thoroughly scientific education and to make them experts along certain lines.

There have been similar developments in the training of educational leaders. City superintendents, principals, and supervisors are returning to the university in increasing numbers each year to work for higher degrees. As they have encountered professional problems in practical situations, they have found that the solution of these problems requires a broad background of experience, technical information, and specialized skills not included in their earlier professional training. Furthermore, the problem of school administration and supervision has become so complex and inclusive that it is inadvisable to try to give during a given year an equal amount of attention to all of the problems which a school presents. As a result, the successful superintendent and principal attack one problem after another, such as the budget and school finance, buildings and equipment, the selection of textbooks, the improvement of teachers in service, etc. In order to meet these

demands for thoroughgoing and specialized training in an effective way, the Department of Education of the University of Chicago has gradually changed the character and scope of its courses in the direction of clearly differentiated, intensive studies of educational problems. Notable progress has been made during the past year.

These changes have been made possible in several ways. First, the members of the department have been actively engaged for a number of years in concrete investigations of school problems through the general surveys in which they have participated and through quantitative measurements in particular fields. There has developed, as a result, a body of accurate, detailed information which is absolutely essential to the organization of effective specialized courses. Secondly, careful comparisons of the content of the courses given have enabled the members of the department to differentiate clearly between the fields covered in each. In this way energy has been saved for the organization of new types of courses. Thirdly, the addition of new members to the department is making possible a much broader scope of work than has been undertaken in the past. Furthermore, the fact that the University is organized on a quarter basis has enabled the department to limit each course to an intensive study of a given problem, or of a series of closely related problems.

In carrying out the new program three types of courses have been organized: (a) informational courses intended to summarize the facts now at hand and to start students in their investigations; (b) courses in scientific technique; and (c) courses carrying forward researches into unexplored fields. Examples of the (a) type are: School Surveys, School Buildings and Equipment, Administration of the Teaching Staff, Administration of Pupils, Curriculum, Classroom Methods, General Teaching Technique, Administration of Finance, Physical and Mental Development of Pupils, Improvement of Teaching Through the Use of Tests, High-School Administration, Elementary-School Administration, etc. Class (b) includes Elementary and Advanced Statistics, Laboratory Methods, introductory and advanced, Development of the Technique of Tests, and Historical Methods. Class (c) will include courses in Scientific Investigation of Reading, Arithmetic, and Spelling, and in the advanced treatment of such topics as are mentioned in the (a) group of courses.

THE WASHINGTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ROCHESTER, NEW YORK

R. L. LYMAN

School of Education, University of Chicago

School Motto: "Do in Co-operation."

Creed: "Since the school is the training field for Democracy, make a Democracy of the school."

Washington Junior High School is an intermediate link between seven elementary schools and the East High School of Rochester, New York. The organization is strictly on the 6-3-3 plan; all of the seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade work for the locality is carried on in Washington Junior High. Ninety per cent of the 1,650 children are of foreign-born parentage, 50 per cent Jewish, 20 per cent Italians, 20 per cent Poles and Germans, and come from homes of the industrial class. The average family income of the school constituency is between \$125 and \$150 per month; per capita income is small, because of large families. Often the total family income is made up by the earnings of both parents; sometimes it is supplemented by the wages of older children. There is, then, a distinct tendency for children of the neighborhood to enter industry as early as the law permits.

It follows that the primary problem which Washington Junior High faced when it was established in 1915 was that of holding the children in school. In 1913 and 1914 the elementary schools of the district sent forward from their eighth grade only 49.7 per cent of their graduates; the school mortality was over 50 per cent between the elementary and the senior high school. In the four years of its work Junior High has carried 92 per cent of its children from the eighth grade into the ninth; mortality has dropped from 50 per cent to 8 per cent. In 1917, when employment opportunities were phenomenal, the carry-over into the ninth grade was 77 per cent. The elementary schools, in the two years before 1915, carried only 30 per cent of their pupils through the ninth and into the tenth grade. Washington has raised this to 70 per

cent. For the four years, between 65 and 85 per cent of the ninth-grade graduates have continued in some form of advanced institution.

Obviously Washington High has very materially reduced school mortality in a strictly industrial community. But a secondary problem naturally arises from the first. Junior High recognizes the distinct obligation of fitting the children who cannot continue in school to enter industrial and civil life as well equipped as possible. Children are retained in order that they may be more adequately trained for citizenship, using that term in its broadest sense as meaning fitness for an adequate share in the industrial and professional duties, together with fitness for an adequate share in the social activities of life in a democracy. That Washington Junior High School regards such training as its ultimate function is obvious not only in the school motto and creed but also in well-nigh every agency and activity of the school community. The school itself asserts that its chief duty is "vocational guidance," a term which is to be understood not only in a narrow sense but also in the larger meaning—preparation for life.

This article endeavors to describe the various means by which Junior High is accomplishing the purposes indicated—the methods by which, in the words of Principal James M. Glass, "the gulf is being bridged." Outstanding among the various means employed are: (1) the content and arrangement of the curriculum; (2) an ungraded vocational program under the Smith-Hughes Act for boys and girls who must enter industry early; (3) direct vocational guidance and personal supervision; (4) "study-coach" organization and supervised study; (5) the socialization of the entire school, pupils and faculty, into a democracy in keeping with the school creed cited above.

I. THE CURRICULUM

Beyond doubt the first inquiry that should be made about a new educational unit like the junior high school concerns the curriculum. How is it modifying the antiquated seventh- and eighth-grade course of study, the useless routine of which is admirably calculated to destroy the interests of adolescents in their school life? For the customary "re-teaching" of the upper grades does it substitute curricula filled with necessary information for

immediate use in adult life? Are its various curricula so formulated as to provide content and sequences adapted to the growing maturity of the pupils? Are the curricula planned to insure for the children educational try-outs that shall guide them intelligently and place them wisely in suitable life careers?

ORGANIZATION OF COURSES

Courses	Grades	Subjects for the Four Periods			
		English	Arithmetic	*Social Science	†Special Subjects
General.....	Seventh	English	Geometry	*Social Science	†Special Subjects
Foreign Lang'ge	Eighth	English	Algebra		
		Foreign Language	Algebra	Foreign Language	**Special Subjects
Commercial....	Ninth	English	Commercial Mathematics	*Social Science	†Special Subjects
	Eighth	English	Business Practice		†Special Subjects
					†Special Subjects
	Ninth	English	Commercial Mathematics	Typewriting	†Special Subjects
			Bookkeeping	Business Writing	†Special Subjects
Industrial Arts..	Eighth	English	Geometry	†Social Science	†Special Subjects
	Ninth	English	Algebra	General Science	†Special Subjects
			Algebra	Mechanical Drawing	†Special Subjects
Household Arts.	Eighth	English	Geometry	†Social Science	†Special Subjects
	Ninth	English	Algebra	General Science	†Special Subjects
			Algebra	Design	†Special Subjects

* Social Science includes Civics, History, Geography and Current Events.

† For Seventh Grade B.—General Science, Art, Music, Physical Education, Industrial or Household Arts. For Seventh Grade A.—One period a day in term try-out.

‡ Same as Seventh Grade.

** Includes General Science and certain elected special subjects.

|| Physical training taken from English time.

† Time for General Science taken from Social Science.

General Notes.—For students fourteen years of age or over, a special vocational course covering two years is offered. This course is administered according to the provisions of state and federal acts relating to industrial education.

The program of the organization of courses given on this page represents somewhat inadequately the answer of Junior High to these queries concerning the curriculum. Two preliminary facts may be mentioned. First, the school day of six hours, with sixty-five minutes noon recess additional, is divided into five periods. Four periods of eighty minutes each provide ample time for all work to be done in school in the four major studies which each pupil pursues: English, mathematics, social science, and industrial work. Home work is entirely eliminated except in the ninth grade where partial provision is made for it. A fifth period of thirty-five minutes is set aside each day for "student activities."¹ A second pertinent fact is that the seventh-grade course of study is

¹ See p. 202.

identical for all. Washington regards the seventh grade as the "finding year," as contrasted with the eighth, "the testing year," and the ninth, "the carrying-on year." The finding year keeps its courses identical for all pupils in order to bridge over the sharp break from the one-teacher-all-classes instruction of the elementary school. Departmental teaching, new subject-matter, and strange school environment offer to incoming classes enough that is unfamiliar. Differentiation of courses, which would add more confusion, is therefore postponed until the eighth grade.

An examination of the content of the various subjects reveals certain radical departures from traditional procedure which unquestionably add to the attractiveness of school life.

Eliminations.—There is an obvious attempt to eliminate unnecessary repetitions of work done in earlier grades. Conspicuous in the field of vernacular training is the absence of extensive drill in oral reading. The following paragraph with accompanying measures for carrying it out might well be incorporated in any plan for upper-grade English.

Oral reading, important as it may be, will never play as large a part in the life of the ordinary individual as silent reading. The future information and consequent effectiveness of our students will depend largely upon what and how they read. It is, therefore, the duty of the school not only to create a taste for good reading, but also to train students so that they will get the largest possible results from their silent reading when no one is present to offer suggestions or to aid in the interpretation.

In the study of literature, Washington largely eliminates analytical study of masterpieces, aiming at "the big ideas in many selections" rather than at examination of minute details in a few selections. In grammar, an admirable plan of minimum essentials excludes many abstruse topics, but in the opinion of the present writer, stops somewhat short of appropriate and desirable limitation. In spelling, the language program eliminates for the pupil elaborate word lists, substituting "the vocabulary he is likely to meet in his written work." Spelling lessons are restricted to five new words a day, each pupil at work upon words which are his own special "demons."

The content of several studies also shows radical eliminations. The setting of seventh-grade history in ancient and mediaeval times is exceedingly brief, developing only the origins and growth of

democracy. Other topics omitted are stories of explorers and discoverers, campaigns and military details, and chronological study of presidential administrations. Only four American colonies are studied as types. It is estimated that from 30 to 40 per cent of history topics usually taught are thrown out. Geography is limited in the seventh grade mainly to location, products, and transportation problems of local, state, and national interest. Civics omits elaborate classifications of officials, and current events avoids vapid discussion of large questions beyond the assimilative power of children. Similar eliminations are made in science and in mathematics, some thirty-five topics usually found in arithmetic of the seventh grade being avoided.

Life contacts.—Almost every subject stresses topics which contribute to present and ultimate utility. "Life contacts" are the units in civics. Our school, our city, reason for the growth of Rochester, the city flag, protection of life and property by the city, provisions for education, opportunities for recreation, Rochester as part of Monroe County—these topics indicate the locality beginnings of work in civics. Topics in geography are similarly selected for their life contact value. Typical examples are Rochester, location, reasons for growth, relation to state; New York, boundaries, rivers, mountains, cities, transportation, products; United States; adjacent countries. Social science is organized around units of "home, street, school, city, state government," each as contributing to the health and happiness of the individual and the community. Processes taught in arithmetic are the ones that the business men of Rochester agree are important. Geometry turns about matters of everyday life like designs in oil cloth. Mathematics is taught "both as a *language* for the explanation of certain ideas, and as a *tool* for the solution of certain problems of general interest." English grammar is considered "in relation to the present needs of the pupils"; even the first vocabulary the child learns in Latin is related to life, rather than to the next text he is to study. Everywhere, apparently, the principle of local interest in present needs is stressed rather than the idea of postponed returns.

Correlation of subject-matter.—Attempts to correlate the subject-matter of various courses are most prominently represented in the languages: Latin and French, begun in the eighth grade, are intimately associated with English. In fact the eighty-minute

English period of this grade is divided in the foreign language course, giving fifty minutes to the vernacular and thirty to the foreign language, the same teacher acting as instructor in both languages. Obviously Latin and English grammar have much in common and many interesting parallels and comparisons may be made. That the relation between English and French is somewhat artificial is indicated by the strained devices used in correlation. "In the opening lessons, English and French are correlated by a brief survey of the historical background which brought the two languages together. Similarly geographical location, climate, industries, natural resources, and population of France and of the United States are compared." Correlation thus described is proper enough in its place, but can scarcely be called correlation of the languages themselves.

Corresponding divisions of eighty-minute periods often under the same teacher are common. Bookkeeping and commercial mathematics, mathematics and mechanical drawing, typewriting and business writing, mathematics and business practice, drawing and science—these and similar combinations are utilized to good advantage. Moreover, constant pressure is exacted in all courses to maintain good habits of spoken and written English. The curriculum-makers have deliberately confined reading in English to belles-lettres; they say in the course of study, "Supplementary reading in geography and history intended largely to give information in these subjects should not be considered part of the work in literature and should be read during the period devoted to these studies." In her history classes Washington Junior High is experimenting in teaching pupils silent assimilative reading as the basis for effective study habits.

Progress in difficulty of subject-matter.—Work in geometry starts with material that is both introductory to this subject and essential to a clear understanding of it. It is not high-school material crowded down into the eighth grade but represents an effort to furnish a better foundation for the study of mathematics than it is possible to provide under the ordinary plan of the senior high school. The preliminary course in geometry is made the basis for a similar preliminary course in algebra given in the second half of the eighth year, a course which is also designed to give a better foundation for the more formal study of algebra in the ninth year.

Algebra is taught as a short method of symbolizing numerical relations and processes. The plan provides for the introduction of algebraic symbols in a much more simple and concrete manner than is ordinarily attempted. Pupils become familiar, through a series of natural and simple steps, with the fundamental processes and principles of a formal subject that has long been the bugbear of first-year high-school students.

A foreign language is introduced in the eighth grade to provide a longer period for the development of a foundation for a detailed study of the language in the ninth grade and in the high school. Vocabulary taught in this first year is determined by practical standards rather than by a particular textbook that is to be used in some following year. This again demonstrates that the eighth-year work is no mere pushing down of high-school material into the grades but is an endeavor to relate the study of the language to the students' environment to which they are directed to look for their first lessons. In Latin, for example, the pupils are made conscious of the fact that without knowing it they have been using Latin expressions. In both foreign languages and mathematics the plan in the eighth grade is to provide a foundation for the more formal work of the ninth grade, thus eliminating to a certain degree the large number of failures in these two subjects.

The earlier introduction of general science has made it possible to reorganize the course in such a way that much of geography has now been appropriately planned as part of the work in general science. The work outlined under this heading provides a sound foundation for the study of a particular science later on in the senior high school. Under this plan it has been possible to keep the social aim predominant, thus making the home, the street, the school, and the city contribute to the development of the children.

Work in social science begins with the study of the various functions of the city government as paralleled by student activities in the school community. Having laid a foundation which enlarges naturally with the child's daily experiences, the latter part of the seventh grade leads him to consider some of the simpler historical aspects in civics in order to secure an idea of our political inheritance. In the eighth grade, the work becomes a little more formal and is based upon a study of the federal constitution. Constant reference is made, however, to the foundation previously laid,

which provides the essential fundamental experiences without which such a study would be of comparatively little value. The progressive development in the current events outline is indicated by the fact that it starts with the collection of material having reference to local events, and, as the child gains in his ability to discriminate, the outline provides for the study of state, national, and international events.

Cross-over privileges.—The various curricula are arranged to make comparatively easy what are known as "cross-over privileges." In the second semester of the seventh grade, known as the try-out term, all the boys are given experience in at least two of the industrial shops,¹ and all of the girls devote one period a day to various branches of household arts. Toward the end of the seventh grade each pupil chooses² the special course he wishes to pursue in the eighth (testing) year. He has the option of a foreign language (academic) course, an industrial arts or household arts, or a commercial course. If, after the first choice of differentiated courses in the eighth grade, it appears, by a thorough test in his selected course, that a pupil has made an unwise choice, he transfers with small loss of time into another course. Such transfers are facilitated by the fact that the differentiated courses are parallel in various eighth-grade branches of English, mathematics, history, and science. Loss from transfers occurs only in the special vocational courses. Assisting in the cross-over privileges is the "study-coach"³ organization which provides for make-up on the part of retarded pupils, and the semiannual promotions, which insure at the very worst a loss of only one-half year in cross-overs. During the past year only 5 per cent of the pupils needed to transfer from one curriculum to another. Separation of courses in the ninth grade (carrying-on) year is practically complete; however, in some cases cross-over privileges are still possible in English, science, and mathematics.

II. VOCATIONAL INSTRUCTION

The more traditional subjects, through their enriched and varied content and their progressive arrangement, are important factors in making school life attractive. Their function is primarily the

¹ See p. 189.

² See p. 180.

³ See p. 195.

inculcation of information, skill, and ideals which bear upon vocational training in its wider meaning. On the other hand, definite vocational "urge," "try-out," "experience," and "set," in the narrower sense of direct preparation for industry, come through the strictly vocational courses. A visitor is struck by the fact that the vocational interests of Washington High, fully on a par with the academic, in some curricula quite overshadow the purely cultural interests. It is fair to say that Washington does this deliberately, attempting to serve acceptably her industrial constituency, and attempting to retain pupils who, without opportunities for intensive vocational training, would unquestionably be lost by the schools.

In considering vocational opportunities as presented in Washington High, it must be clearly understood that the same plant is utilized to carry on two quite distinct lines of educational endeavor: *graded prevocational* work, usually considered one of the most important functions of a school on this level, and *ungraded vocational* work, as prescribed by the Smith-Hughes legislation. During its first two years, Washington confined its attention to the prevocational, providing for it a moderate amount of instructional energies together with a few rather inadequately equipped shops, such as are usually found in a strictly prevocational junior high school. In 1917, extensive equipment and several teachers were added through Smith-Hughes subsidies, and at present there are nine manual arts shops for boys and corresponding household arts equipment for girls, with seventeen teachers. The shops include printing, pattern-making, sheet metal, electricity, painting and decorating, cabinet-making and mill work, gas engine, machine shop, and drafting. Laboratory equipment for girls includes provisions for sewing, dressmaking, millinery, laundry, cooking, and household economics. The entire student body is influenced by the prevocational facilities, while 269 children, 16 per cent of the student body, are ungraded vocational pupils.

The demand for industrial education has constantly grown. At present 27 per cent of all the boys in school are in ungraded vocational courses; 55 per cent of all boys in differentiated courses above the seventh year are in technical and vocational departments; of these, 28 per cent are in technical and 27 per cent are in vocational departments. The extensive demand thus represented

is a natural development of the industrial community; it cannot be a forced growth, since every child above the seventh grade is free to make his own choice, and no pressure whatever is exerted to force his selection.

Prevocational work for graded classes is divided into the general try-out required of all 7A pupils and the industrial technical courses elective in the eighth and ninth grades. During his 7A term, every child is required to take one period of shopwork per day. The purpose is to give him a general idea of what industrial work is like in order that he may make an intelligent choice in the electives of the eighth grade. Industrial technical courses, elective in the later grades, fulfil a double purpose: they continue more extensively the industrial try-outs of the seventh grade, and they also serve as general courses of industrial information. The children spend one term in a shop, then change by terms into different shops, so that at graduation they have had a fairly definite experience with several different lines of industrial work. Moreover, the industrial technical courses are preparatory for, and have corresponding outlets in, the senior high school. Still further, at any time a crossover¹ may be made to the general academic course without severe loss.

Ungraded vocational work, limited to trade-training by Smith-Hughes specifications, is said by Principal Glass to "complete the democracy of the school."

The proud boast of a Junior High School is its democracy—its equality of opportunity to all—its ability to break down all social distinctions between classes by the upbuilding of one great comprehensive school—its one all-inclusive school community from which it is not necessary to separate one class of pupils whose needs demand intensive training and who cannot enter an advanced school and who must be vocationally placed. If we would preserve the democracy of the Junior High School and in doing this we preserve its very life, we shall hold tenaciously to the vocational department as an integral part of the Junior High School.

Through ungraded vocational opportunities many children are retained who would drop out at fourteen years of age if they have completed the eighth grade, or otherwise at fifteen years of age. In a school like Washington there are boys and girls who have no expectation or possibility of going forward into the senior high.

¹ See p. 185.

At fourteen or fifteen years they face squarely the problem of vocational placement. Junior High meets the problem of persuading them to stay beyond the legal age by offering them *trade skill* as a primary object, with the aim of entering directly into the industries of Rochester as advanced apprentices. In this connection, the technical industrial department is also a factor in retaining boys and girls in school. Boys who are not yet fourteen years old enter the technical department as a prevocational course with the vocational (trade) department as an outlet, into which they transfer when they reach the required age. Thus they get a preview of shopwork and are contented to concentrate on preparing for a trade rather than leaving for work. The extra year or two which Junior High may persuade them to take not only give them as much skill in any particular line as a boy who has served a corresponding period in the industry, but also give them much more technical information and outlook. Still further, the additional years insure for industrial pupils active participation with all the citizenship training involved in the democratic life of the school in which all pupils participate.¹

Convincing facts are advanced to support this position. First there is the loss of 50 per cent at the end of the eighth grade of the elementary schools before Washington was established. Secondly, there is the preponderance of overage pupils in the ungraded vocational work. Of these, 82 per cent are overage, compared with 39 per cent overage in the commercial, and 26 per cent overage in the academic work, and 26 per cent in the technical. Thirdly, there is the fact that 73 per cent of the boys and 74 per cent of the girls in the Smith-Hughes work are past the legal age for leaving school. The dropping out of just such children was primary in the 50 per cent school mortality from the eighth grade of the elementary schools—a mortality which Washington has already reduced to 8 per cent.

Students who enter the ungraded vocational department do so with a clear understanding that their courses do not have outlets in the senior high school. However, it is possible for a pupil to spend his junior high time exclusively in trade-training and still not shut off entirely the privilege of higher schools. He may enter the Rochester Shop School, and there continue for three years,

¹ See p. 197.

receiving ultimately the State Industrial High School Diploma. Also, a child graduated from the ungraded vocational work may, with certain minor conditions, enter Rochester East High. His junior high course has added to three hours of daily shopwork one and one-half hours of English, history, civics, and hygiene, and an equal daily time to related shop mathematics and mechanical drawing. Admittedly this academic work suffers from being ungraded; it nevertheless makes it possible, though not probable, for an exceptional youth to go forward if he desires.

Thorough vocational try-out is provided for ungraded pupils. A pupil may enter the department at any time during his junior high-school life, provided he is fourteen years of age. Upon his entrance, the pupil, with the consent of his parents and approval of teachers, elects the trade he wishes to follow. If he shows ability after ten weeks' try-out in the trade of his choice, he may continue that line intensively for two years. If, on the contrary, instructors believe that the lad is unfitted for the trade of his first choice, he is put through a second try-out in another shop. This process may be repeated until it is decided that the pupil has found his calling.

Instruction in all shops is done on standard machines, and so far as possible parallels factory conditions of the better type. All work is productive in all branches of vocational instruction. In one respect the grafting of a unit trade school upon the prevocational department of a junior high has admittedly been unfortunate for the latter. At least three of the important shops, machine shop, electricity, and automobile repairing, are needed exclusively for trade training. The remaining shops are used for vocational work part of the time and for prevocational try-out the remainder. The cabinet assembly shop is used for try-out only. It may be pointed out that this minor conflict of interest between vocational and prevocational activities might be remedied by providing more shops and instruction.

There remains to be worked out by further experimentation this vital issue: whether elaborate opportunities in trade training in an ungraded vocational school receiving state and federal aid do or do not attract youth, boys especially, away from a more lasting contact with higher educational privileges. At present, opinion of educational leaders in Rochester is divided upon this issue. However, the evidence is beyond question that trade training has been

the most important single factor in preventing school mortality. It may be suggested also that extensive Smith-Hughes equipment has undoubtedly enabled Washington to provide *more prevocational* agencies than otherwise would have been the case. It is quite possible for a junior high school, because it can offer only inadequate vocational opportunities, to turn out industrial misfits. Finally, for those pupils who can not or will not enter the higher schools, the junior high school ought not to dodge the responsibility of vocational fitness and placement. Not without reason is it to remark that if exclusive trade training under the Smith-Hughes bill must be provided at all for children of junior high-school age, it is far better to provide such training under the same roof with more liberal curricula and in contact with many socializing agencies than it is to provide such training in separate schools.

III. VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Supervision of health and morals.—An examination of the program of duties performed by the principal's office staff as given on pages 192 and 193 discloses the large number of approaches by which Washington High endeavors to meet the individual needs. This is especially significant because admittedly one of the chief causes of school mortality is lack of attention to the varying attainments and capacities of pupils accompanied by even grosser neglect of health, home conditions, and related matters. Members of the principal's staff themselves perform a multitude of duties; they also stimulate and supervise among pupils and faculty alike all activities which fall within their respective spheres.

This bird's-eye view of what may be called "the personal touch" with children is given in full, since it is impossible in a limited discussion to consider in detail many of the related factors. All of them together form an agency for preventing educational waste on a par with the curriculum, with vocational instruction, and with school socialization.

Why is it that, after the try-out year is finished and the testing year is under way, only 5 per cent of the pupils find it necessary to transfer from the course of their first selection to another which appears better fitted to their capacities? The answer probably lies in the painstaking care with which the original choice of differentiated courses is guarded. Such care consists of at least five

different safeguards, in addition to the vocational try-out discussed above.¹

Concerning each seventh-grade pupil the vocational director, A. Laura McGregor, assembles a set of information blanks filled out by the pupil, parents, home-room and subject teachers, and handwork teachers. Careful examination of the data thus obtained constitutes the first step in deciding eighth-grade elections. Types of information are:

Pupil's blank

1. What work have you enjoyed most?
2. What book has been the easiest; what hardest?
3. What school activity have you liked best?
4. What further school work do you plan to take?
5. What occupation do you plan to enter?

Parent's blank

1. How much longer do you plan to send your child?
2. What occupation do you desire him to enter?
3. In what occupation has he been employed?
4. Is his health good; if not, why?
5. What are his outside activities?

Home-room teacher's blank

1. Excels in (specify hand or book work)
2. Has he sense of responsibility; ambitious?
3. Results of interviews, if any, with parents
4. Academic record in ten subjects
5. Ability, in ten headings, application, neatness, etc.

Handwork teacher's blank

1. General ability in handwork
2. Accuracy and speed
3. Ability in mechanical drawing, art, design
4. Inventiveness and interest in handwork
5. Evidence of ability as leader

All information from these sources is studied by the director of vocational guidance, whose decision, after considering other information listed below, is the school's final word in difficult cases of educational placement or transfer.

A second provision for sound educational guidance is a staff of seven vocational counselors, two men and five women, who are relieved from a portion of other school duties for personal work. Last year these officers made 603 visits in the homes of pupils, the largest portion of whom were seventh-grade children, to ascertain

¹ See p. 189.

conditions of the home as well as its desires for the children. For educational placement the parent's choice is always the deciding factor; even the vocational director yields in stubborn cases. Misfits are almost invariably the result of choices made by parent or pupil in disregard of the school's advice. And very frequently after a test of one term, pupils and parents, finding the school's advice verified, themselves voluntarily bring pressure to have their

OFFICE STAFF ORGANIZATION

DIRECTOR OF SUPERVISED STUDY AND VOCATIONAL

GUIDANCE

- A. Supervised study
 - 1. Classroom visits
 - 2. Plan books
 - 3. Demonstration lessons
- B. Vocational guidance
 - 1. Guidance in election of courses
 - 2. Adjustment of courses
 - 3. Part-time schedules
 - 4. Investigation of school record applications
 - a) Information blank files
 - b) Vocational counselors
 - 1) Individual conferences with students
 - 2) Home visits
- C. Study-coach organization
 - 1. Non-promotion classes
 - 2. Subject-failure classes
 - 3. Trial-promotion classes from contributing schools
 - 4. Promotion of study-coach students
 - 5. Transfer of failure "C" students of current term to study-coach classes
- D. Student club organization
 - Chairman of executive committee
 - 1. Student elections
 - 2. Student assignments
 - 3. Faculty leaders
 - 4. Club assignments to rooms

SCHOOL SECRETARY

- A. General information
 - 1. Visitors—ushers
 - 2. Parents' inquiries
 - 3. General inquiries of faculty and students
- B. Students
 - 1. Tardiness
 - 2. Discipline—initial cases
 - 3. Absence
 - 4. Early dismissals
 - 5. Application for and issuing of school records for working permits
 - 6. Welfare guidance for boys
 - a) Physical welfare
 - 1) Habits—cleanliness and personal hygiene
(Co-operation with physical instructor for boys)
 - 2) Initiating medical attention
 - (a) Home visits through vocational counselors
 - (b) In co-operation with school physician school nurses, community and civic agencies, etc.
 - b) Moral and social guidance—
Co-operation with home-room teachers and vocational counselors
- C. Phones
 - 1. Public phones { 1 ring —Teachers
 - 2. School phones { 2 rings—Class president
3 rings—Ushers' call
- D. Assembly
 - 1. Seating
 - 2. Programs (chairman of committee)
- E. Financial
 - 1. Entertainments—proceeds
 - 2. Sale of student officers' buttons, graduates' pins, faculty pins, etc.
 - 3. Book rental fees
 - 4. School accounts
 - 5. Annual financial school report
- F. Miscellaneous
 - 1. Checking up returns of reports
 - 2. Storeroom and supplies
 - 3. Program clocks

GIRLS' ADVISER

- A. Moral and social guidance for girls
 - 1. Moral guidance—in co-operation with home-room teachers, city visiting teachers, social workers, etc.
 - a) Individual conferences with girls
 - b) Conferences with mothers
 - 1) Interviews at school
 - 2) Home visits
 - c) Visits to home rooms
 - 2. Discipline problems—in co-operation with school secretary
 - 3. Social guidance—personal friendships, activities in and out of school, recreational, social, community, and civic.
 - 4. Proper dress—in co-operation with director and instructors of the household arts department
- B. Physical welfare for girls
 - 1. Habits—cleanliness, personal hygiene—in co-operation with physical instructor for girls
 - 2. Initiating medical attention
 - a) Home-room visits
 - b) In co-operation with family physician, school physician, school nurses, community and civic agencies, etc.
- C. Vocational placement for boys and girls
 - 1. Placement
 - a) Graduates
 - b) Students leaving school at legal age
 - 2. Follow-up records

PRINCIPAL'S SECRETARY

- A. Faculty
 - 1. Salary blanks—checks
 - 2. Absence of teachers
 - 3. Supply teachers
- B. Students
 - 1. Admission of new students
 - 2. Transfers
 - 3. Changes of course
- C. Reports
 - 1. Monthly, term, and annual reports (abstracts)
 - 2. Tabulation of all reports
- D. Office records
 - 1. General files
 - 2. Permanent record card file
 - 3. Health card file
 - 4. Student schedule card file
 - 5. Scholarship records of W. J. H. S. and contributing schools
 - 6. Statistics book—archives of school
 - 7. Date book (record of factors in school organization recurring at regular time periods)
- E. Registration
 - 1. Term schedule
 - 2. Special schedules
 - 3. Readjustments in schedule
- F. Requisitions
 - 1. Requisitions and invoices for supplies
- G. Stenographic work
 - 1. Stencils
 - 2. Circulars
 - 3. Correspondence
 - 4. General typewriting, etc.

own choices rectified. This is especially true in those cases in which close touch between the home and school has been attained through visits of counselors.

A third line of educational guidance consists of various measures employed to acquaint all teachers thoroughly with the work of the entire school. There is frequent interchange of visits between teachers; in a body the entire faculty visits a single department; department aims and methods are topics for faculty meetings; there are demonstrations of classwork by individual teachers before the faculty; in many cases subject teachers conduct classes in two or more departments. The principal affirms: "It is an administrative problem of no small proportions to prevent one-sided views in the weighing of one course against another on the part of faculty, student body, and home." Wise words these, and indicative of the endeavor Washington High is making to teach children with vary-

ing needs and capacities, rather than subjects. Faculty activities of this character are the justification offered for the allotment of time from the school period for faculty meetings.

Closely affiliated with the devices named are the plans of imparting vocational information, a field in which the vocational director asserts that the results are as yet unsatisfactory. At present, experiments are being made in home rooms through the Students' Activities period,¹ in the general assembly period, in library reading, and in English. Two faculty committees are considering what information to use and how to use it. The problem is to give pupils vocational information before rather than after their major choices are made.

Educational placement and follow-up is also regarded by Washington High as one of its duties, especially in the case of untrained children who leave school at the legal age. The school can care for those who remain, but those who leave are the joint responsibility of the industry, the state employment agency, and the school. The school record is sent to the employment bureau to which the child must go in person to secure his certificate of employment. This visit gives bureau officers a chance to become acquainted with the child, and to consider the recommendations of the school. Once a month the school and bureau have a conference concerning doubtful cases. The bureau sends each fortnight to the school a list of children placed, and children unaccounted for are traced through the vocational director and through vocational counselors.

Finally, no exposition of Washington High's attention to individual needs could omit the work of the girls' adviser and of the school secretary in caring respectively for the health and morals of the girls and the boys. The school has no doctor and no nurse; instead, it employs a woman, herself the mother of three children, who serves in the capacity of school "mother" for the girls in the intimate and sympathetic relations too often lacking in their homes, and another woman, who, with the principal, performs similar services for the boys. Underfed children are provided by the school with milk and other nourishing foods, or in extreme cases are transferred to the open-air school.

¹ See p. 202.

Health, dress, conduct, and manners receive constant attention. Cases are not infrequent in which subject teachers feel that children are wholly incompetent or incorrigible. One little boy who seemed stupid in all his classes was found to be selling papers from 2 to 6 A.M.; one boy out of every six in Washington High is a newsboy. One little girl twelve years old was habitually late because she had to carry huge bundles of clothing to the factory each morning. Such cases, placed in charge of the welfare adviser, often reveal through her visits wholly impossible home conditions. The adviser's task is to place in such a home a friendly visitor from the city charities, and fully to explain to teachers in Junior High the difficulties under which such children labor. Thus does she promote interest, friendship, and charity for the unfortunates, working out the problems for which home, school, and city are jointly responsible. In short, the work of these personal touch officers fittingly climaxes the admirable organization maintained by Washington Junior High School for meeting the individual needs of her charges.

IV. STUDY-COACH ORGANIZATION

Another powerful factor serving individual needs especially in the remedial and preventive work connected with non-promotion is the conduct of a "study-coach organization" whose special function is bringing retarded pupils back into the line of advance. In this organization pupils who have failed in one or more subjects are placed in "non-promotion groups"; pupils who are on the verge of failure are placed in "failure-prevention groups"; and inferior seventh-grade children sent forward by the elementary schools are placed in "trial-promotion groups." All told there are seven study-coach rooms in charge of the seven teachers who also serve in the capacity of vocational counselors. The double function enables them to correlate their major duties and places intensively some of the finest instructional energy in intimate charge of those pupils who are most likely to become an educational loss.

It must be understood that the study-coach organization is in one sense quite separate from the regular classes. For example, a boy who has failed in only one subject is transferred to the study-coach organization in all his subjects. He may be taking 7A English, 7A social science, and 7B mathematics, all in study-coach classes. The aim of this is twofold: to keep the unfortunates

together in what are pleasantly designated as "Opportunity Classes," and to prevent the clogging of normal groups by the presence of numerous unfortunates.

An essential feature of the organization is that pupils who have fallen behind or even failed go forward in spite of their failure. "Make up," "catch up," and "keep up" are the watch words. That is, an opportunity class with redoubled attention to supervised study and individual help, with many devices for awakening and stimulating ambitions and energies, holds before the laggards a triple aim: they are to make up the work in which they have failed, they are to catch up the work of the regular classes in the same subject, and they are to show their ability to keep up for a time. Then they are transferred to normal classes. A child who has once been put forward can very readily be kept up to standard both by the prospects of failure, and by the experience of ability to succeed.

Transfers to and from study-coach groups take place at the end of each five weeks, four times a semester. That means that the groups are constantly shifting, about one-third passing back to their normal programs, and one-third transferring to the opportunity classes. Interesting is the rivalry which is evidently stimulated by instructors. For instance, in one non-promotion English class a large chart hangs in front of the room. Upon it are entered the results of weekly review tests in grammar, spelling, writing, and reading. At the close of a five weeks' period, this English record is transmitted to the office where it is calculated with records from other classes. Pupils making the best competitive records, are automatically restored to normal classes.

That the study-coach plan is remedial to retardation and discouragement is evidenced by the record. In the first semester, 1919, 150 subject failures were made up; there were 72 failure preventions, a total of 222 periods of repetition saved. That is, the equivalent of six classes of 37 pupils each saved the repetition of one subject, thus saving the full time of more than one instructor. Still better, 120 pupils were restored to normal programs. In the the second semester, January to June 1919, of 57 pupils placed in trial promotion groups, 86.2 per cent were promoted; of 96 pupils in subject-failure groups, 71.5 per cent were promoted; and of 40 pupils in failure-prevention groups, 64.1 per cent were promoted. Moreover, these figures do not represent the judgment or the records

of the study coaches who were in immediate charge of the pupils concerned; they are the records of other teachers, at the end of the year, to whose classes the pupils had been transferred.

To the accomplishments of the vocational counselors and their director, the principal pays a generous tribute: "Their service in remedial and preventive measure has developed into one of the chief factors in preventing elimination; they have performed an equally valuable service in providing expert and specialized vocational guidance; with all this, they have alone accounted for an economy to the extent of saving the time of one, almost of two, teachers."

Another agency which correlates with vocational guidance and study-coach organization in preventing elimination by attention to individual needs is the system of supervised study which prevails in all classes. For this end the time schedule of eighty-minute periods is especially designed. To individual teachers are left the details of management within the general provision of three branches, review, assignment, and silent study. The review may be a reorganization, produced orally and co-operatively, of the preceding day's silent study, or it may be a recall of knowledge already in possession of the pupils and necessary for new forward steps. The assignment period includes the discovery of problems, teacher's contributions and explanations, and direct instruction in how to study. Work in the silent-study period is divided into minimum, average, and maximum assignments. The first category including the minimum essentials of the course of study is all that is required of the lower third of the group. That lesson shows the best planning in which the majority of pupils can complete the average assignments in the allotted time. The maximum assignment is meant only for superior pupils. This system of supervised study obviates the necessity for study halls, and for all home study, except in the ninth grade, in which some home study is deemed necessary to facilitate the transition into the senior high school.

V. THE DEMOCRATIC ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDENT BODY

Instrumental also in preventing elimination is the socialization of the entire school through an elaborate system of democratic interrelationships as shown in Chart I. In fifty-two home rooms as the group units is found the core of the democratic organization.

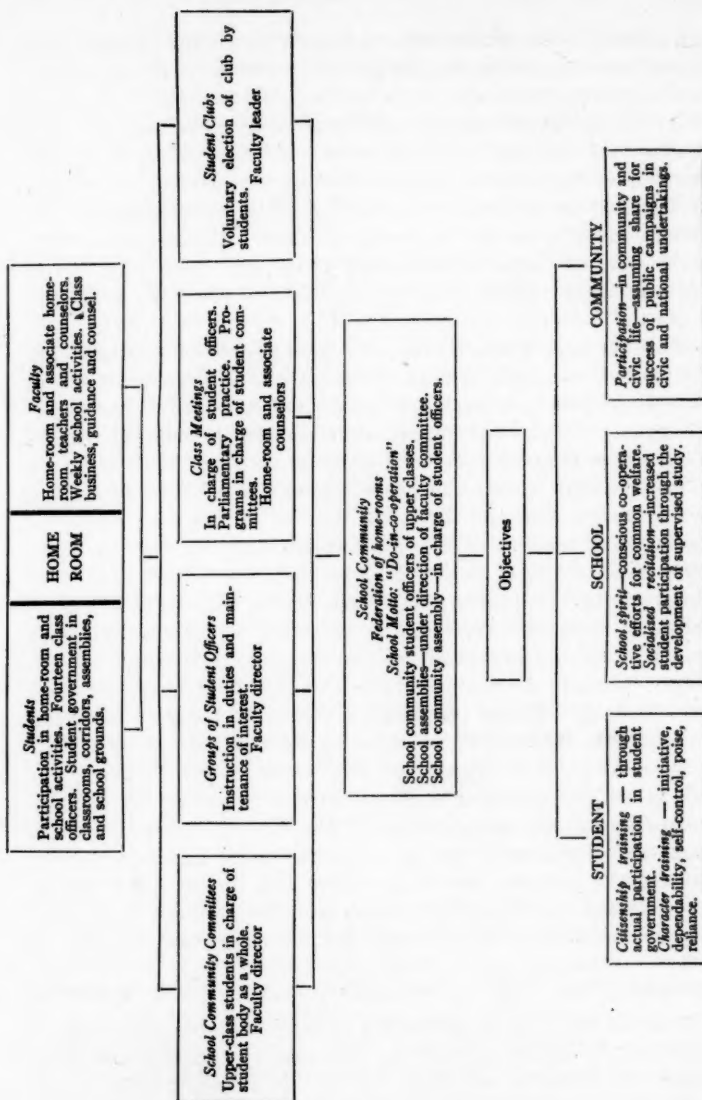


CHART I—Socialization of the School

Radiating out from the room units of about thirty-five pupils, each with its own varied governmental and social activities, run the various lines both of faculty and of student organization which culminate in and constitute the school community. The school community is represented as aiming to reach three correlating objectives: A school spirit of conscious co-operation attained through participation in the community life and through training for citizenship.

The home room is indeed the primary agency through which a very large share in social control is placed squarely in the hands of the pupils themselves. In Chart II the unit of control is represented by the inner circle. It is in charge of student officers elected by semesters in town meeting, and under the supervision of the home-room teacher as counselor. The home-room plan, one teacher with an assistant directly responsible for the welfare and progress of a small group, continues the one-teacher responsibility of the elementary school. It guarantees that junior high-school teachers remain teachers of children not of subjects.

Each room has five officers. The room president is class leader, the presiding officer at all class meetings, the teacher's proxy during her absence, and the agent for library campaigns and other school enterprises. The vice-president is business manager of all home-room activities and as the "safety first" representative inspects and remedies menaces to sanitation and health. The secretary-treasurer is in charge of school reports and of all communications with the office, is custodian of class funds, and is in charge of savings accounts and thrift stamps. The usher is a reception committee of one to receive visitors, and to escort them through the building. He also leads his group in passing through the corridors, being required on his own ingenuity to extricate them from corridor congestion. The deputy is in charge of group discipline, dismissing the class and maintaining the order of his group in the corridors.

Chart II represents also in its outer circles the federation of home-room units. Conspicuous here are the devices by means of which important matters are launched and communicated among the student body through student officers rather than through the teaching staff. In the upper half of the second circle, are representations of five student officer groups, made up respectively of the corresponding room officers. Each of these councils is in general

charge of a faculty adviser chosen because of his special fitness for the task. With the council of presidents the principal of the school and the school librarian are in close touch. The former uses the group presidents in matters pertaining to general school morale, while the librarian uses them to advertise the school library. A fact worth noting is that in the month of October, 1919, in a school of 1,650 children, the school library circulated 4,500 books and magazines for home reading, *over and above* the periodicals which were drawn purely for purposes of prescribed study. This purely voluntary reading was stimulated by the librarian through the agency of the president's council.

The faculty director of the council of vice-presidents is the school health officer. Under his guidance this council makes monthly inspection of the entire school plant for fire hazards and unsanitary conditions. The council of secretary-treasurers, under the direction of the school treasurer, is responsible for originating and managing various campaigns for thrift and saving. About 400 children make deposits each week, averaging about 42 cents each. The total amount thus saved is in the neighborhood of \$175 per week, and has run as high as \$350 in one week. Each child is given his own account and a pass book by one of the city savings banks; individual savings have in some cases exceeded \$300.

In the council of ushers is given training in courtesy and good manners which is carried over by the usher officers to the home rooms. From this council the school ushers are selected to guide visitors through the school—a service which is intelligently rendered by carefully selected and trained ushers. The council of deputies initiates campaigns for perfect records in attendance and promptness. Banners are awarded each week to all classes in which deputies are enabled to report no tardinesses. Usually about ten to twelve home rooms are enabled to display the banners thus awarded.

To be noted here is the fact that all five of the councils have regular meetings once a month with their respective faculty advisers. Such meetings are conducted strictly under parliamentary usage. If any home-room section has instituted an interesting innovation the officer representative may pass it on to his colleagues from other rooms. In this way the various representatives become mutually helpful. They are encouraged also to initiate movements within

their own respective fields, as well as to become agents within their own groups for the policies suggested by their faculty leader.

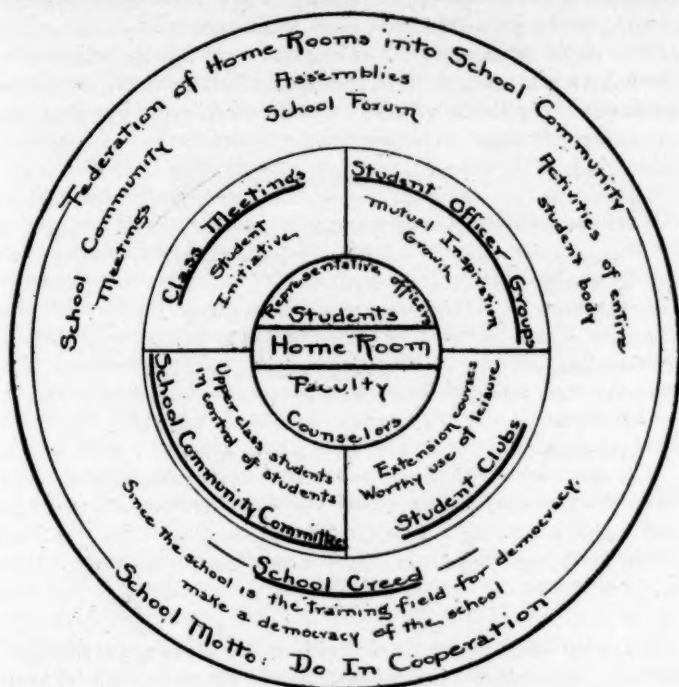


Chart II.—Socialization of the School—the Organization

There remains a third set of student organizations also represented within the second circle of Chart II which are servants of the school federation and at the same time are executives for faculty control. Several school community committees selected by the faculty directors of the committees aid in maintaining discipline. A luncheon committee has entire charge of the cafeteria, caring for dishes, taking payments, acting as cashiers. A committee of messengers is so organized that a notice from the office can be distributed to fifty-two rooms in five minutes; a marshals committee polices the building to guard against petty thefts in cloakrooms.

The members of this committee are not known to their comrades. Finally a committee of twenty deputies is in charge of the student body coming in and leaving the building; they act as traffic officers, directing in the halls the class ushers and deputies.

The day's program in Washington Junior High provides a School Activities period of thirty-five minutes, dignifying this "special field for the students' activities as citizens" by allotting to it a time provision. The schedule is as follows:

MONDAY	HOME-ROOM ACTIVITIES
8:30-8:45	Banking
15 minutes	Home-room teacher as counselor
TUESDAY	STUDENT PARTICIPATION
8:30-9:05	Class meetings
35 minutes	Group meetings of student officers
	School community meetings
WEDNESDAY	WEEKLY ASSEMBLY PROGRAM
8:30-9:05	The school forum
35 minutes	
THURSDAY	FACULTY ACTIVITIES
11:25-12:00	Meetings, conferences, demonstrations, programs, inter-department visiting
35 minutes	
FRIDAY	STUDENT CLUBS
10:55-11:50	Inclusive of entire student body
55 minutes	Optional choice of clubs
	49 clubs—64 faculty leaders

The plan thus presented in outline has certain outstanding features. Theoretically the Monday period was to be used for such influence as the room counselor might bring to bear concerning scholarship, conduct, ideals, and vocational choice. Since its reduction to fifteen minutes, it is used for little more than school banking. The Tuesday meetings, wholly in charge of student officers, center around programs planned in advance. In 1918 the general topic was "Study of the War;" in 1919, "Great Americans," including Carnegie, Roosevelt, and Edison. A faculty meeting in school time with student body dismissed is certainly unique. In 1918, the faculty through discussions, reports, and demonstrations considered "supervised study;" in 1919, "vocational guidance" in a series of definitely planned meetings extending throughout the year.

Student clubs came into existence as an organized part of student activities with the School Activities period. They are practically impossible on a scale to include the entire student body except under a definite time allotment. The scope of the club work is determined by the extra-curriculum interests of the students and the ability to find club leaders among the faculty. Every student in the school is a club member. Membership in some club is required but selection of the particular club is wholly voluntary. It is a matter of considerable surprise to discover the number of students who have not developed the taste for, and pursuit of, a wholesome extra-curriculum activity. The perverted taste for the unwholesome outside interest is not corrected through denial of its gratification but through the substitution of a taste for the wholesome interest.

The clubs include musical activities—glee clubs and choruses, school orchestra, and a boys' band; the *Pathfinder* staff editing the school paper; athletic organizations of all kinds for boys and girls—organized games, hiking, swimming, drill clubs, a boys' military club, a girls' relief corps, and athletic teams; literary clubs—debating, dramatic, two-minute men's clubs, story-telling and short story club, watch-your-speech club, French and Spanish clubs, and patriotic league for girls; camp fire girls auxiliary club and boy scout patrol leaders training clubs; science clubs—wild flower, bird, chemistry club, and general science; travel club and exploration club, stamp club and camera club, poultry club, wireless club, kite club, first-aid club; scrap-book club; many clubs of a vocational character utilizing the special equipment of the differentiated courses on the extension plan—electricity, drafting, steel-working, cartooning, handicraft, aero club, shorthand, pencil-drawing, pen-lettering, knitting, millinery, tatting, embroidery, crochet, and girls' handicraft clubs.

The club organization is directed by an executive committee of the faculty. There are 49 clubs with 64 faculty leaders and a membership of 1,650 students. Each club has its own student organization and club meetings are conducted as are class meetings by student officers with faculty guidance. By reducing the School Activities period on Monday to fifteen minutes, the Friday club period is increased to fifty-five minutes. Membership of the clubs disregards all department and grade distinctions. Each club may

include in its membership representatives of all departments and all grades of the school. The only determining factor in the club organization is the choice of the student. The guiding principle of the school creed—"make a democracy of the school"—prevails in the club organization.

The impression gained by a visitor is that Washington Junior High School is neither an elementary school under a new name nor a senior high school imposed on adolescent children. It is an intermediate link, performing for an industrial constituency a function quite distinct from that of the lower or the higher institution. It correlates cultural and vocational courses to serve a double purpose, keeping all the pupils possible in line of educational advance, and giving to those who must leave school early sound vocational guidance and the foundations of trade efficiency. Throughout the entire organization the needs and capacities and increasing maturity of growing boys and girls, studied individually, are the primary considerations. And, finally, all activities are definitely planned to make life in the school itself a direct preparation for life in the city which Washington Junior High is serving.

THE INDIVIDUAL PUPIL AS THE UNIT OF SUPERVISION IN HIGH SCHOOLS

MORTON SNYDER

Principal, University High School, University of Chicago

For some decades the roadside schoolhouse stood as the symbol of salvation for our democracy. Now the monumental high school is proudly pointed out as evidence of our intention to do the right thing by our children. The one lacked almost everything except intimate contact between the teacher and the children; the other has almost everything except that one essential. In the country school, system was largely missing, but the individual pupil was important; in a great city high school, the system may be a triumph of executive ingenuity, but the boys and girls are merely counters passing through the machine.

Conscientious administrators and teachers are striving bravely against the tide of events to know and help their pupils. But they are themselves struggling against submersion. Many of our high schools have reached what the economist calls the point of diminishing return, that is, the point where each unit expended, be it the teacher's time, the pupil's effort, or the public's money, brings a decreasing dividend in actual human education.

In our high schools American love of big things has run riot, and the result is most serious and most wasteful. The superlative would not be justified were it not true that the high-school years are at once those in which education of the individual as such is most vital and those in which the cost of education is heaviest. The situation is not to be attributed to administrative blundering; it is part of the trend of American life all about us.

The individual pupil as the fundamental unit in supervision has been lost sight of through a variety of causes:

1. It is of the genius of the city that individuals do not count. Human life is lightly held; a serious catastrophe is the incident of a day. Nor does the city draw nice distinctions between those whom

it does take time to notice. The world leader, the screen comedian, and the latest homicide secure equal space on the front page. The city does not take its individuals seriously.

2. Failing to respect individuals for their distinctive characteristics, the city cannot assess correctly those elements in education which make for individualism. Education is education, a commodity to be furnished by certain employed persons to certain youths assembled in large buildings, in order that these youths may learn to make a living or prepare for college. Personal contacts, intimate teaching relations, friendly community spirit, close supervision, intensive training—these are values which are not widely recognized.

3. There is apparently no reason for limiting the size of the producing plant; the high-school principal seldom objects to expansion. On the other hand, the authorities find every reason for having as large a plant as possible. Taxes are high, real estate is high, administrative costs are high. The growth of certain towns has been phenomenal. The big school will be cheaper to run and it will be more prominent in every way and therefore more satisfying to the tax payers. And so a consolidation results which squeezes out of our high schools much of what is best and most worth retaining.

4. A new turn of thought and speech frankly ignores the individual as the major interest of our schools. With all propriety and in honest acceptance of the facts we discuss and undertake "mass education." The war has revealed a situation in which national greed demanding large profits to be drawn from cheap labor has left the schools with a burden out of all proportion to their resources. Rapid assimilation of our immigrants is demanded in the interest of a more wholesome economic and social situation. The big job must somehow be done, and done quickly; the individual must merge with the mass. Mass education is to be measured in the large. The startling revelations of comparative tables properly result in adjustments of policy which bring a higher ratio of promotions and a lower ratio of limitations. Only two ways for securing these corrected ratios are open: to have better teaching or to lower standards. The first being temporarily or locally unobtainable, the other is inevitable. Mass education carries with it, therefore, a process of leveling down. The hopeful view of this

phase of the problem is that we shall presently reach an average level from which we can steadily advance, a point of balance in mediocrity from which we can rise—unless in the meantime we further complicate the situation by accepting from foreign shores large groups who are below our lowest acceptable level.

5. Another influence affecting both our organization and our methods is the social ideal of education. We have come to think of schooling as a community enterprise managed for the good of the community. Individual welfare is subordinate to the group welfare. This is as it should be, but the planting of the group idea in the minds of some teachers has worked the practical elimination of the individual pupil as an object of serious concern. Furthermore, the application of the group idea in rating pupils on distribution curves not infrequently results in thorough disregard of sound standards of accomplishment and merit.

6. The departmental principle in teaching and administration has brought a notable improvement in the organization of material and in teaching technique. These gains are, however, somewhat neutralized by the impersonality of the whole régime with its exaggeration of self-defense in supervision. The teacher meets a pupil but once a day or less often; the "home-room teacher" does not necessarily ever teach the pupils for whom he is "at home"; the teacher's primary interest is too often in the subject rather than in the children; professional advancement rests upon the creation of textbooks and the perfection of technique. It is almost inescapable that the children come to be thought of as means rather than as ends.

7. Finally, there is the labor union attitude with its injection into school of the three union aims—more pay, shorter hours, limited output. The teaching profession is not entirely to blame for the spread of this attitude. The public is much more culpable. The widely accepted trade-union viewpoint, the niggardly policy of many communities in respect to teachers' salaries, the two-platoon school with its restrictions on plant, teachers, and time, the single session school with its short day, the unwillingness of parents to have pupils detained—these are facts against which the most generous teacher can make little headway. Some schools and teachers devise ways of meeting them, others deplore them as inevitable, and others frankly surrender and drift into a time-

serving, clock-watching frame of mind. In any case, the individual pupil loses out.

These influences may conceivably be beyond the power of the high-school principal to remove. Probably most of them must be accepted as part of the problem. In that event, the effects must so far as possible be counteracted. Different schools are facing the difficulty in different ways, with varying degrees of success. There is no doubt that we must go yet further if much of our enormous investment in high schools is not to be wasted on superficiality—indeed, we may say, if nation-wide secondary education is not to be devoted to the perpetuation of mediocrity.

At least part of the remedy for the conditions outlined above lies in the following:

1. On the part of the public, honest recognition of the facts and of their outcome.
2. On the part of school people, a reaction which shall bring renewed attention to the individual pupil as the primary and essential object of interest.
3. A revival in the schools of an administrative and instructional technique which shall emphasize the individual boy and girl instead of the class or the section or the subject or the special enterprise in which the school takes pride.

Let us see what these involve.

The public must be educated to a real sense of school values, which education can be accomplished only through the propagandist efforts of those who are actually administering the schools.

The people who support the schools and who send their children to be educated must be brought to an understanding of certain things: that education is a highly individualistic experience, not merely a commodity to be carried away; that this experience cannot be best provided under the high-speed, over-crowded, mechanized conditions of the shoe factory; that an investment which establishes and perpetuates the factory system, far from being economical, is actually wasteful.

Having arrived at these convictions, a community will reward progressive leadership in realistic and concrete fashion. It will furnish building space and equipment so that each pupil may go to school all day. The two-platoon, half-day high school will disappear. The largest high-school building will, within the limits

of the wealth and geography of the town, be built to accommodate from 500 to 1,000 pupils. When there are many more than 1,000 high-school pupils in town, a second school will be furnished, in order that the maximum return on the town's investment shall be assured. The community will furthermore take pains to assure this return by insisting on a long school day for teachers and pupils. And it will furnish a reasonable ratio of teachers to pupils, say 1 to 25. The principal will also be given adequate clerical and supervisory assistance so that he may be free for personal contact with his school and acquaintance with his pupils. However free the principal be, he will be expected so to organize his school as to provide faculty members who have an actual responsibility for personal work with groups of pupils. If local conditions make a large school unavoidable, this school will be formally subdivided into administrative units of reasonable size.

The above program, claiming no originality, will draw the reply that all these things are already done. This is true in individual communities with, shall we say, more than the average sense of educational values. But as a nation, we have gone in for big things—for large-scale production. We have sacrificed craftsmanship in order to get the job done. Before the program can become a generally established fact, we must sacrifice our pride in the merely big and develop a sincere respect for the human and the reasonable. Incidentally, we shall have to revise our tax laws.

A certain portion of the public resorts to private schools. These have long enjoyed prosperity in the East. It is, however, significant that almost every large city of the Middle West (a section which prides itself on its patronage and support of democratic, progressive, popular schooling) has now a thriving private school of comparatively recent origin. There is no evidence that either the democratic or the progressive spirit of the West is changing. Is it perhaps true that thoughtful parents are discovering that in the great high school their boy or girl is not a real person but merely a name on the records? The remedy which they adopt is, of course, worse than none so far as the community's schools are concerned, for it not only does nothing to make the schools better but removes from them what interest and influence these parents might have exerted. Nevertheless, the fact has weight, since it quite definitely suggests a need in our high schools and a way out.

The high school must approach its task with something of the sense of contractual obligation which the better private school demonstrates. We have had too much of the hotel and too little of the family in our high schools. We have done the job pretty well, extensively, but not intensively. We need in the high schools among executives and teachers a quite definite return to the sense of personal responsibility for pupils. Those whose professional philosophy carries them back along this line feel very strongly that they are close to the fundamental element in successful school-keeping, whether this be considered in its instructional, disciplinary, or administrative phases.

The first essential to an adjustment in our planning within the school is a clear notion of the actual nature of a high-school group. It is in no sense a fusion but is a conglomerate; it may at any time disintegrate. For example, consider a recitation section of, let us say, twenty boys with a man teacher. The morale of that section, i.e., its attitude toward the teacher, its general behavior, its industry and results, is not a group response but the sum total of individual reactions. The inspiration or the bedevilment of the group rests not on mob psychology but on the ability or inability of the teacher to convince each boy that he, the teacher, is deserving of respect, that he means business, that his subject is worth while, that it can be learned, that it must be learned. Assuming that the teacher has acceptable personal and technical qualifications, his success in securing these convictions depends not on any general or impersonal handling of the group but on his setting up between each of the twenty and himself personal wireless systems over which by eye, voice, posture, manner, and dress he will send not one but twenty telepathic dispatches.

It is, of course, not intended to assert that there is in school no such thing as group consciousness or group response. Much of what is accomplished is done through group loyalty, "school spirit," the tradition of obedience, and the atmosphere of courtesy. But in the last analysis the social, intellectual and moral tone of our schools depends on the appeal to the individual. Confidence of accomplishment, appreciation of the better things, fear of punishment, surrender to temptation, bad manners, persistence in the face of failure—these and most other human phenomena of school

life are individualistic and personal demonstrations best curbed or stimulated by direct, face to face contacts.

The specific limitations of even a few individuals within a class must set the standard and to a considerable extent dictate the organization of the class, the length of the assignments, the method of lesson presentation and of discussion, the system of grading. It is not enough to say that a subject must be taught in a certain way, that all must deliver or go under, that technique must be preserved at all costs. In the classroom as on the battle-field that leader is most valuable who wins his victories with the fewest losses. For those who will say that this is but a restatement of the obvious, it may be well to point out that many Latin teachers are still trying to fit children to the subject rather than the subject to children, that many physics teachers still deplore the attempts to give simplified physics to Freshmen and Sophomores, that many manual work teachers still insist on indifferent effort spent on conventional problems instead of enthusiastic labor devoted to a boy's own original project.

It is trite to say that, in order to analyze groups and diagnose problems accurately, the high-school administrator and teacher must have a real knowledge of the physiology and psychology of adolescence, as well as a competent understanding of the learning process. And yet every year there come to our high schools, collegians and experienced teachers whose chief interest is their subject and whose chief lack is a clear sense of the real nature of boys and girls. These people and the schools in which they teach are not destined for a large success until they have learned to regard their pupils, not as a class, but as unique personalities entitled to quite the same courtesy, consideration, and attention as themselves.

The actual process of coming to know our pupils is a difficult one, administratively, even in a school of five hundred pupils. But it is not impossibly difficult, and many schools develop a fairly penetrating and comprehensive acquaintance with the personal factors involved. Accepting the obligation, the school strives to learn as much as possible of the human inheritance—physical, mental, moral, and aesthetic—which its boys and girls bring with them. It discovers at first hand something of the home environments and economic limitations among which lessons are learned and ambitions nourished. It takes accurate account of the physical details

affecting pupils' work, the facts of growth, hygiene, and general health. It quite definitely attempts to discover the mental assets and liabilities of its pupils, their powers of memory and reason, their speech and manual facility, their response to different types of knowledge, in order to offer vocational guidance and training appropriate to the abilities revealed. It seeks to know as a very real thing the volitional and moral fiber of each pupil, his will to succeed, his power of attention, his stamina under difficulties. It learns somewhat of the social nature of boys and girls, their reaction to the world about them, their friendships, their temptations, their recreational tastes and habits.

The responsibility for a school's attitude toward its individual pupils lies largely with the principal. True, he may work under distinct limitations imposed by those above him, but he will not surrender to these completely. Accepting facts temporarily, he will exert his influence and his powers of leadership to secure such modification of the facts as will make them contribute to his plans. In his dealings with the community he will emphasize persons, not numbers. He will oppose the growth of his own school to unreasonable size and will not peacefully accept the two-platoon and short-session school. He will publicly refer to education as an intimate, distinctive experience; not as a process. He will preach that mass education and the social group are best served by the development of a high order of individualism inspired with the ideal of service. Within his school he will insist that departmental efficiency and special technique be judged in terms of boys and girls successfully trained, and he will make it clear that each teacher is held personally responsible for failure to secure from this boy or that girl a result creditable within the limits of the child's ability.

Upon the principal rests also the responsibility for so organizing and administering the school as to give his convictions real effect in the emphasis placed upon the human side of the work. It is not a light obligation. The head of a large high school finds little time for the kindly paternalism of the old-time schoolmaster. He must be at once business manager, educational expert, and community leader.

If the principal believes that the welfare of the individual pupil is his chief concern, he will delegate to others as much as possible of other things and will keep an open office for the children, will

seek ways to keep in touch with a large number of parents, will devise a system of records and reports which will bring to his desk a maximum of human detail in a minimum of time, and will perfect such an organization as will provide the necessary intimate contacts with pupils. Patent devices and imported plans will not work. The system adopted must be suited to local conditions, to the character of the school and its work, to the physical facts of a plant already in existence, to the caliber and personality of the faculty, to the temperamental limitations and special abilities of the principal himself.

In offering the following series of devices in effective operation in one school or another, no claim to novelty or originality is made. Their value depends almost wholly on the spirit in which they are operated, on the point of view of the administration using them. For example, intelligence tests and psychological analyses may have the positive utility of affording a fact basis for organizing a boys' course, for modifying teaching methods, or for protecting the school against the weakness of a kleptomaniac, or they may have the merely negative utility of affording a basis for eliminations. The study of eliminations which reveals the fact that large numbers leave a certain high school "to go to work" gives nothing of importance until it goes deeply enough into the individual cases to make it possible to advise them of the wisdom or unwisdom of the decision to drop out, and to know *why* they went to work, and how the school curriculum, the school life, or the eccentric teacher must change in order to compete with "going to work."

A constructive problem closely connected with the problem of elimination is, of course, that of organizing a curriculum actually suited to the community. The individual pupil and his needs are the only proper basis for a curriculum policy. Quantitative studies will show for graduates and for those who drop out the vocations to which they immediately and eventually turn; other studies show the limitations in respect to language ability, etc., of those received from the grammar schools; still others reveal the results attained in high school by various groups and types of pupils and give ground for deciding whether a specific subject is justifying its existence and cost. The unit is in every case the individual pupil with all the evidence available concerning him and his kind.

One of the most difficult problems in large high schools is to keep in touch with the parents of the pupils. Some few are indifferent; most fathers are working all day and a visit at the school means loss of pay; not a few shrink from intruding or imposing on the busy principal; pupils generally discourage parental visits. As a result, parental calls have come to be associated with serious delinquency or deficiency. One high school takes the initiative and apportions among its faculty the homes represented; the teachers call at every home during the fall. Another school relieves a man and a woman of some academic obligations in order that they may become social service investigators for all sorts of cases. A woman dean in a large high school in the course of her dealings with difficult or weak girls goes directly home to several mothers each week. One principal in a school of nearly two thousand pupils reserves one day for office conferences with fathers and mothers, many of whom are requested to call. In another it is understood that parents will find their children's teachers free on a certain afternoon. An evening office hour once a week makes it possible for a principal to meet fathers. One school sends home weekly deficiency reports. Special reports on individual pupils are secured from teachers by the pupils themselves, shown to the principal, delivered at home in person and returned to the principal signed. The Parents and Teachers Association is found everywhere and has no small influence in many schools. The meetings of such associations do much to bring a common basis of understanding and to convince fathers and mothers that school is not a mere officialdom.

In his attempt to come into personal contact with his pupils, perhaps the principal's most subtle problem is to convince them that "the office" is not merely "the office" and that the principal is not merely "the man in the office." The difference in ages, the relation of authority, his constant absorption in desk work, his ultimate disciplinary function—these things children feel, and they stay away. One principal reserves an office hour for pupils at the close of each school day. Another makes it his business to mingle in all the extra-curricular life of the school, athletics, clubs, parties, trips, etc. Another assumes the advisership of the senior class, another of the freshman class. Another in a school of three hundred undertakes during the fall term an informal conference with every pupil, discussing lessons, personal interests, ambitions, school life.

It is obvious that in a large school such conferences would have to be delegated to others, but there is no doubt of their value. A boy or girl early comes to feel that someone is interested in him or her.

There are all sorts of records and reports. Certain data are essential to a comprehensive knowledge of any single pupil or group of pupils. A brief personal as well as graded record from the grammar school gives a real basis for class organization and the approval of electives. Abnormalities revealed in health, physical examination, and absence reports should early come to the attention of the principal or his executive lieutenants. Deficiency and delinquency reports and special reports from teachers on individual pupils follow each other across the principal's desk in rapid succession. The study-room teachers are in a position to give vital information as to the reasons for failures in classes. A record of the distribution of average grades which makes it possible to determine each pupil's relative position in his group is found helpful in dealing with pupils, parents, and teachers. Personal knowledge of the individual pupils of any group is almost essential to the intelligent and just use of distribution curves in marking systems, and curves are not sound criteria of a teacher's judgment until they are supplemented by acquaintance with the individuals represented.

One of the most concrete and convincing ways for principals and department heads to bring to their teachers a sense of accomplishment or lack of accomplishment is to make a record of observations in terms of individual pupil reactions. A "socialized recitation" may be exceedingly vivacious through the ready interest of the class in the assertiveness of a few, but the sum total of effective participation may be very small. An individualistic analysis of the period shows that a small fraction of the class carried the hour, and that even the enthusiastic efforts of this fraction produced less than 50 per cent of correct statements. A series of such observations showing for several visits the same low fraction of attention, of participation, and of success, must soon convince both principal and teacher that the *individuals* in the class are not getting the work, though the recitations may superficially seem to be admirable.

In whatever degree of intensiveness a principal observes or analyzes the instructional and disciplinary procedure of his teachers, the essential criterion for judgment is pupil reaction. The sequence of operation is cause and effect, but the sequence of investigation

is from effect to cause. The superiority of this or that method of presentation, the utility of one device or another, the value of Miss A. or Mr. B. in handling a given situation—these are decisions to be based almost wholly on the response from the pupils. The worth of a teacher is determined, not by what she can do, but by what she can get the young people to do.

In no other detail, perhaps, is it more important to consider individuals than in the administration of examinations. Here physical, temperamental, and parental elements must always be considered if serious injustice is not to be done this one or that one. For the sake of a certain fraction of every group, final examinations, when given as part of school policy, should be treated as an ordinary incident of the course, not as a special crisis likely to result in irretrievable consequence. (It is, of course, true that one never knows what a child's parents are doing behind one's back.) The grading of the papers and weighting of the examination in the final average must, in the nature of things, be reasonably uniform, but there should always be left the chance for making exceptions in individual cases.

Various efforts are being made, and wisely, to put our marking and credit systems upon an individualistic basis. No better mathematical device for the accomplishment of this purpose has been found than the system by which excess credit is given for merit above a certain parity and discounted credit given for poor work. Compared with the conventional system this is marking on a piece-work instead of on a time basis. It gives an actual bonus for superior accomplishment and makes a direct appeal to individual ambition.

Most schools have for a long time tried to show what sort of persons their pupils were by reporting, numerically or literally, such values as "conduct," "attitude," and "effort." Certain private schools have recently attempted to go much further in devising terms and report forms which shall express to parents the school's judgment as to the development of individuality in their children. One school rates, verbally, from excellent to unsatisfactory, such abilities as "congregating, languaging, acquiring, creating, pairing, playing" and asks the parents of its pupils to report on the pupil's "courtesy, cheerfulness, promptness, appearance, obedience, use of spare time, etc." Another school rates by scale such abilities as the

ability "to get along with people," "to contribute to the general good," "to plan work on problems or projects," "to work wholeheartedly," "to control physical self," etc. Probably no large school could undertake the detail involved in such reports, but the intelligent teacher will take a mental inventory of these and other qualities among her children and will be prepared to assist her principal in arriving at right conclusions in dealing with individual children.

It is obvious that in a very large school, the principal cannot personally follow any considerable proportion of his pupils, unless he divests himself of almost everything else. He will, then, organize on lines which will charge others with the supervision of pupils, although this will leave him more than ever "the man in the office." If he is shrewd, he will have one or more women as immediate assistants in an executive capacity. The dean of girls, or the woman assistant principal, is one of the most helpful members of the whole staff. Quite aside from the value of having at hand a woman's intuition and judgment, there are elements in the school life where a man's sense is of little value, and there are disciplinary and personal problems among the girls of his school in which he is not only out of place but useless. This is as true in the high school of three hundred as in one of three thousand.

Various supervisory systems have been worked out, ranging from the centralized school with a principal and several assistants using the same office to the actual subdivision of the school into four quite separate units, each with its own study-hall, class interests, and vice-principal. The assignment of "home-room teachers" is most common and, in operation, sometimes one of the most perfunctory devices in use. Class advisers are not infrequently officers for so large a group with such a multiplicity of enterprises on foot as to preclude any personal contact with the members of the class other than the pupil officers. A fairly effective scheme is the "group adviser," charged with direct responsibility for, and intimate personal knowledge of, a selected group of say thirty pupils, their courses, vocational plans, deficiencies and difficulties, home conditions, etc., and also responsibility for keeping the principal informed concerning such members of the group as need special attention.

It is not true that any plan which will work in a school of five hundred can be quadrupled in a school of two thousand; there is an actual change in the nature of the community. But, assuming that the personal relations of the principal with his pupils are worth while in the smaller school, it is fair to say that a reasonable substitute for these relations can be offered through the good offices of several responsible group vice-principals. With these group principals both the pupils and their teachers will deal so far as the personal phases of school life are concerned. We shall have then, not only departmental heads administering the curriculum, but personnel heads in intimate contact with the human side of the school, both, of course, responsible to the principal.

For half a century American educators have tried to devise systems of promotion and transfers which should make it possible for children to move in accordance with their general capacity and special abilities. The problem of keeping the bright pupil busy and the slow pupil undiscouraged has been a difficult one. Certain of the plans tried have failed because they seemed to the supporting public to be administratively uneconomical. It is perhaps one of the compensations of our large schools that it is possible to organize many sections of the same subject and to differentiate these clearly in respect to content, method, and rate of progress. It is furthermore possible to do it not merely in one year but to carry the distinct groups through two or more years of high school. In the small and moderate-sized school, time-table difficulties soon arise, but these are not insurmountable.

Sound policy must provide for personal promotions on the basis of specific subjects passed and for a time-table which will permit not only a wide variety of combinations based on individual elections but also prompt adjustments, up or down, as the need is revealed. Only thus will the psychology of success operate.

Individual instruction, that is, instruction so planned and carried out as to assure each pupil a large portion of the teacher's time and a large measure of participation in the activities of the period, is still far from realization in most schools. The skilful teacher does, however, go far in this direction if the class is not overwhelmingly large. That modification of classroom technique known as supervised study, or better, co-operative learning, is, when well done, a distinct contribution to individualistic teaching.

The really expert teacher is enabled to go into the actual learning processes of his pupils with the result that he can help solve their difficulties, correct their methods of work, and stimulate proper habits. This skill may be supplemented, and usually is, in a reasonable amount of after-school work with troubled pupils, in faculty office hours, in free period conferences, in departmental deficiency study classes supervised by members of the department in rotation, even in Saturday morning appointments between teachers and pupils. Saturday morning has been traditionally sacred to late breakfasts or recreation, shopping appointments or extension courses. There is, however, no reason why it shouldn't be utilized when the needs of individual pupils and the convenience of individual teachers coincide. It is surprising how many young people are quite willing to go to school on Saturday morning when they feel a real benefit derived.

An attempt has been made to indicate a tendency of the times in our educational system, to show the need of a revival of interest in the sort of thing which the old-time school did very well (and indeed many small high schools today still do it well), and to suggest measures which are being found helpful. There is no need for summarizing. Suffice to say that policies and devices will amount to little unless they are instituted and carried out by school folk in the sincere conviction that neither systems, nor curricula, nor subjects, nor technique are of so great concern as is the individual boy or girl.

JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL STUDY TESTS

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One of the many problems that has arisen as a result of our efforts to perfect a junior high-school organization that really meets the new and constantly growing needs of the boys and girls at this particular stage of their school life has been that of developing a workable plan for making the most effective use of the time for study provided for by our longer periods and the lengthened school day. We found little data upon which to base our conclusions and so we set about the task of formulating tests to be given to the pupils as soon as they entered upon their work under the new organization.

This article attempts to give some idea of the reasons for giving the tests, the particular object of each test, the test itself, and finally some of the conclusions that have resulted from a study of the tests in relation to the special problem of using study periods in school most effectively.

PURPOSE OF THE TESTS

Our results indicate that the pupils come to us with comparatively little idea of what real studying means. The general purpose, therefore, of giving the tests to pupils entering junior high school may be stated as follows:

1. To make students aware of certain things that they ought to know about studying, and to create a desire for instruction in the best way of studying.
2. To suggest to teachers both class needs and individual needs as the basis of possible and desirable lines of instructions.

The specific purpose of each test is indicated in the following brief tabulation:

1. The first test was designed to ascertain whether the students could select information from the printed page in response to questions.
2. The second test was designed to ascertain whether the pupils knew the meaning of certain expressions found in the text and used by them in their answers to the questions given in the first test.

3. The third test was designed to find out whether the pupils knew how to use a book.
 - a) Table of contents
 - b) Index
 - c) List of maps
 - d) Appendix
 - e) Reference to footnotes
 - f) Lists of general references
 - g) Paragraph headings
4. The fourth test was planned to bring out the following points:
 - a) Ability to select the *important* things told in a paragraph.
 - b) Ability to write *intelligent* questions about a paragraph.
 - c) Ability to collect the information suggested by a simple outline.

FOUR TESTS

A regular textbook was used as the basis of each test and thus provision was made for future tests of a similar character by means of which the progress of each individual might be traced. Following is a statement of the four tests given to the pupils on successive weeks.

STUDY TEST No. I

Based on page 53 of *Essentials of Geography* by Brigham and McFarlane.

I. Directions:

1. Record the time at the top of your paper when you begin to read and when you have finished answering the questions.
2. Open the book at page 53.
3. Read the entire page.
4. Referring to this page as often as necessary answer the following questions.

II. Questions:

1. Why was New England so named?.....1 credit
2. Copy the sentence that tells why the people came to New England1 credit
3. What else does the second paragraph tell you about the early settlers in New England?.....2 credits
4. State three reasons given on this page as to why the early settlers had such a difficult time.....3 credits
5. How does the chief industry in New England at the present time differ from that of the early days?.....2 credits
6. What part of New England has grown most rapidly?.....1 credit

STUDY TEST No. II

Based on page 53 of *Essentials of Geography* by Brigham and McFarlane.

I. Directions:

1. Record the time at the top of your paper when you begin to read and when you have finished answering the questions.

2. Open the book at page 53.
3. Referring to this page as often as necessary, explain the meaning in your own words of the following expressions in the paragraphs indicated.

II. Expression

Portion of our country.....	second paragraph
Had not been permitted to do.....	second paragraph
Ready to endure any hardships.....	second paragraph
Exceedingly rugged.....	third paragraph
Very forbidding.....	third paragraph
Dense forest.....	third paragraph
Mother country.....	third paragraph
Native population.....	third paragraph
Most populous.....	fourth paragraph
Secondary importance.....	fourth paragraph
Credits—one for each expression.	

STUDY TEST No. III

Textbook—*Elementary History and Government* by Woodburn and Moran.

I. Directions:

1. Using your textbook in history, find the information called for in the following questions.

II. Questions:

1. In what chapter do you find an account of the Declaration of Independence? Tell how you found this chapter.....2 credits
2. On what pages do you find information about John Smith? Tell how you found these pages.....2 credits
3. On what page do you find a map showing the early settlement of New York State? Tell how you found this map.....2 credits
4. Name two topics found in the appendix.....1 credit
5. On page 24, in paragraph 4, what does the small figure "2" after the word "thought" mean?.....1 credit
6. Does the author give references to other books? If so, where?..1 credit
7. Give the paragraph headings on page 28.....1 credit

STUDY TEST No. IV

Textbook—*Introduction to American History* by Woodburn and Moran.

I. Directions:

1. Open your book and follow the directions given.

II. Directions:

1. State in your own words three important things told in the paragraph on the Phoenicians found on page 11.....3 credits
2. Write three questions that you would ask a pupil if you wanted to find out whether he knew the important facts in the first paragraph on the Egyptians on page 4.....3 credits
3. On pages 8 and 9 find the information called for in the following outline and state it in *your own words*:

Chaldeans:

- a) Location of their country.....1 credit
- b) Occupations of the people.....1 credit
- c) Their ruler and his famous gardens.....1 credit
- d) Some things the Chaldeans did.....1 credit

Study of the results of the tests.—Each teacher was asked to study the test results as follows:

I. Directions:

- 1. Find the median in each test.
- 2. Underline the scores below the median.
- 3. Star names of pupils below in every test.
- 4. Make a list of such pupils and study their marks in history to date.

II. Questions:

- 1. Are the slow pupils from a particular school?
- 2. Are they of one nationality?
- 3. Are they low on the comprehension test previously given?
- 4. Are they also slow in time?
- 5. How do the test results compare with oral recitations of the students?
- 6. Are they improving since the tests were given?

III. Questions submitted five months later:

- 1. In the silent study period, do the pupils begin to study at once as though they knew what to do?
- 2. Do they know something about evaluating a paragraph, that is, distinguishing between essential and nonessential statements?
- 3. Do they use the table of contents?
- 4. Can they use the index in its relation to studying from an outline?
- 5. Do they use footnote references in paragraphs intelligently?
- 6. Using their books, can they give definite answers to carefully planned questions?
- 7. Does the paragraph heading seem to have any meaning to them?
- 8. Can they formulate good questions in reference to a topic which they have just studied?
- 9. Can they recite readily from an outline?
- 10. Do they simply recite the facts stated in the textbook or do they show some gain in their ability to discuss given topics?

Suggestive results of the tests.—By comparing the results of Test No. I with the results of Test No. II, teachers have come to realize, as never before, that it is easily possible for children to give apparently good recitations and yet not have any adequate idea of what they are talking about. Incidentally we have all become more conscious of the fact that numerous adult expressions found in most of our textbooks require effort on the part of the pupils that taxes to the utmost their ability to get worth-while ideas.

A summary of the results of Test No. III based on the efforts of 256 pupils shows that

- 58.9 per cent did not make use of the table of contents.
- 49.5 per cent failed to use the index.
- 29.6 per cent failed to discover that there was a list of maps.
- 21.4 per cent could not locate the appendix.
- 27.3 per cent had no idea of the real meaning of a footnote.
- 23.0 per cent could not find the paragraph headings on a given page.
- 65.7 per cent were unable to discover how the author of this particular textbook provided definite lists of references for their help and guidance.

Some idea of the tremendous waste taking place when these students were endeavoring to find information on topics assigned may be gathered from the following answers to question 2, Test No. III:

- I looked the book through and through.
- I hunted up the pages.
- I found it going through from one page to another.
- By looking almost the whole book through.
- By taking one page at a time.

That pupils form strange ideas about things concerning which they are not properly informed may be gathered from answers to question 5, Test No. III. This question referred to a reference figure 2 that occurred in the paragraph after the word "thought" in the expression, "Columbus had thought." The following answers were given in reply to this question.

- It means Columbus thought twice before speaking.
- The figure two means Columbus thought twice.
- It has been said twice.
- It means twice as much water as land.
- It makes thought plural instead of singular.

Some idea of the varying ability of these seventh-grade pupils to follow the simple directions given under Test No. IV may be gained from the medians obtained after careful tabulation of the results of the work of eight different classes:

Class	Median	Class	Median
7B-1.....	80 per cent	7B-5.....	80 per cent
7B-2.....	55 per cent	7B-6.....	20 per cent
7B-3.....	60 per cent	7B-7.....	47 per cent
7B-4.....	60 per cent	7B-8.....	63 per cent

SOME CONCLUSIONS

1. Pupils must be convinced that getting the meaning of the author from a printed page is quite different from repeating meaningless expressions found there.

2. Pupils must be taught to eliminate from consideration material of minor importance if important matter is to be given proper attention.

3. Ability to formulate intelligent questions is an indication that the student has some knowledge of the related and essential facts in the paragraph or the page under discussion.

4. Making a simple outline after having discovered the essential facts is a great help in memorizing desirable information.

5. Much valuable time can be saved if pupils have an adequate knowledge of how to use textbooks.

6. Real progress is the result of wisely directed individual effort.

7. Pupils must be convinced that it pays to give careful attention to all directions given by the teacher.

8. Teachers should help pupils realize that studying effectively is quite a different thing from studying anxiously.

9. It is easier to think through a lesson if a carefully prepared outline is followed.

10. Making worth-while notes helps in summarizing, in selecting essential material, and in gaining ability to reproduce it.

Remedial measures used after giving tests.—After the results of the tests had been carefully studied by the teachers of the several classes, they reported the following remedial measures by means of which they were attempting to increase effective silent study:

1. Following the study tests, special *practice* was given in the use of the index, table of contents, references, and other means of using the textbook.
2. The following types of directions, given as a part of the assignment, helped pupils to study more effectively.
 - a) Using the texts on your desk make a list of the pages on which any information is found concerning Marco Polo.
 - b) Read all references found in the index concerning the first topic in the lesson.
 - c) Write a statement giving paragraph heading and page where reference to the mariner's compass is found.
 - d) Write an original question based upon the second topic in today's lesson.
 - e) Verify your work by using Gordy's *American Beginnings in Europe*.
What additional information does this book furnish?

3. Several periods during the term were spent in reading the text with the pupils who were called upon to give the meaning of phrases and sentences in their own simple vocabulary.
4. Corrected study tests were given back to the pupils and discussed.
5. Pupils' *questions* were discussed by the class and those of minor importance were rejected.
6. Drill was given in the use of chapter, section, and paragraph headings.
7. Frequent use was made of co-operative outlines to enable pupils to summarize their thoughts and select important facts.
8. Definite references were given in the assignment to particular paragraphs or sections which pupils were asked to read and then to tabulate the important facts that furnished desired information.
9. Much more attention was given to ascertaining whether pupils understood adult expressions used in our textbooks.
10. Pupils were required to prove their statements by reference to the textbook. This helped to secure accuracy of statement, to prevent careless habits in reading, and to make the students more gracious in acknowledging their own mistakes.
11. Practice was given in using the textbook to find definite information suggested by a carefully prepared outline.
12. One teacher indicates that the tests helped her along the following lines:
 - a) To remember that the assignment should serve, at least, two purposes, namely, to state the requirements of the new lesson, and to suggest the best ways of studying it.
 - b) To keep in mind points that ought to be emphasized in silent study.
 - c) To modify the *content* of lesson plans.
 - d) To supervise silent study more successfully because of having more clearly in mind some of the things that ought to be observed while a class is studying.
 - e) To analyze the oral response of the pupils more effectively because of coming to realize that it reflects study habits.

Educational Writings

I. REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

An important work on moral training in the school and home.—Several years ago, when the present reviewer was connected with the editorial staff of the *School Review*, the possibility of any such thing as moral education in the schools was a live topic. Of course, no one questioned the importance of personal influence and the general discipline of the school; but as to the possibility of any comprehensive organization of activities and in particular of any effective instruction in morals, eminent authorities disagreed. Many valuable experiments have been made in recent years; the Society for Religious Education has published much in the general field, and finally, the Great War has demonstrated to many who before were sceptical that it is possible to educate a nation in such a way as to influence action, and that ideas may be a power. Those who scoffed at "morals" have been convinced that there is something in "morale." And all the great nations at war believed that it was possible to teach morale. A book on education for character, therefore, may expect to find a broader welcome than it could have received fifteen years ago.

Professor Sharp's book¹ was written before America went into the War, and does not deal with the questions of morale as we have come to understand them during the past two years. It deals rather with the every-day problems of the school. Nor does it consider extensively principles of moral development. It addresses itself rather to the more concrete aims of moral education and the agencies and methods for attaining them. There is no disposition to set up any one plan for curriculum or recreational activities as having magic power. The general point of view is rather that moral education is a complex affair—as complex as human nature. But it is not for this reason to be regarded as something which only a gifted few—an Arnold or a Mary Lyon—can secure. Teachers and parents can master it as they master other tasks if they make use of the resources now available and make it a direct and important aim.

In particular, the three parts of the book deal with the influence of personality, moral training through work and play, and moral instruction, or the influencing of character through ideas. A program for the various grades of the elementary school, exercises giving questions for discussion, and a bibliography of important works on the subject, are appended. In the part which deals with moral training there might well have been a chapter on group psychology, for the

¹ FRANK C. SHARP, *Education for Character: Moral Training in the School and Home*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1917. Pp. 543. \$1.25.

ordinary teacher is probably not sufficiently alert to the opportunities of this agency and the best means of utilizing it. There is, however, a chapter which deals with the more important concrete applications of group influence. Part III centers attention upon moral thoughtfulness as the most important goal of moral instruction. At this point many will still hesitate. So much depends upon the sanity and human quality of the teacher. But for the sceptic as well as for the believer it is worth while to survey the field, and Professor Sharp's book is the best introduction to the subject.

JAMES H. TUFTS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*A new book on architectural drawing.*¹—Among the important values, perhaps the most important ones, derived from a course in mechanical drawing are those embodied in the following points: training in the ability to analyze a situation, collecting information concerning the problem, then bringing together the results of the analysis and the collection of information in the form of a sketch, and training in the ability to pick out and isolate important key lines from a mass of lines of lesser importance in order to have a frame-work upon which to build the details making up the whole. All courses in mechanical drawing give this training in a greater or lesser degree and to the extent that they strive for it consciously, or drift into it relying upon the innate ability of the student to pick it up as he proceeds through a course of intensive copying. Too many courses are pointed with the finished product as the ultimate of attainment—"Something that looks well," however laboriously it may have been arrived at. Too few concern themselves with the progress of the student's thinking or with the methods he uses to obtain results. It has been true in the past and it is still true that many courses require an undue exercise of the copying ability with a minimum of thinking. Texts and reference books that present methods of handling material instead of plates to be drawn or information to be absorbed are very few. Courses are influenced more or less by existing texts. In architectural drawing the problem of getting a text of any description has been a pressing one. Seaman's book is a step in advance. It is one of the first to handle the problem of sketching and of line analysis with any degree of adequacy. The author discusses prevailing methods in vogue in architects' offices. Types of sketches are illustrated. Layouts of typical plans, elevations, and details are shown in sequence as they are developed in the work at the drawing-board. If the author has erred it is in giving these steps so much in detail that they become typical of the type problem he has chosen and are thus correspondingly difficult to transfer and apply as general principles to the infinite variety of problems that the student of architectural drawing meets. Concerned, primarily, with the methods of developing a problem, the range of information on materials and types of construction is rather limited. Its use must necessarily be supplemented by the proper hand-books and trade manuals, devices which are indispensable to any adequate course in architectural drawing.

HARRY T. FULTZ

¹GEORGE W. SEAMAN, *Progressive Steps in Architectural Drawing*. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1919. Pp. 63. \$1.25.

A discussion of women in industry.—A simple text, discussing briefly the problems involved in the employment of women and the various legal remedies by which regulation of these problems has been attempted, has just appeared.¹ Beginning with a cursory review of the economic position of women as reflected by the changes in industry, the authors establish the point often overlooked that "women have always worked;" and discuss the extent to which they are now industrially employed and the measures which have been taken by the various states for their protection.

The purpose of the discussion is not so much to enumerate laws passed, as to indicate the protective regulations desirable, and to this end measures which have been adopted or only proposed are dealt with from the standpoint of their probable efficacy. The purpose of all protective legislation is twofold, to guard the individual woman against exploitation and to bring women as a whole to a state of industrial development in which they will "no longer stand as possible hindrances to the steady progress toward a genuine democracy in industry." The working woman, an industrial asset, may become a social liability unless, as the authors maintain, she is given suitable protection in the industrial world. Such protection includes the regulation of working hours, provision for sanitary and fairly comfortable working conditions, prohibition of employment in certain dangerous occupations and processes, a living rather than a minimum wage, health insurance, the right of collective bargaining, and opportunity for some training and the exercise of some choice of pursuit. Equal pay for equal work is advocated, and, under conditions of work reserved exclusively for women, a legal minimum based upon the cost of living should offset the lesser bargaining power of women.

The pamphlet concludes with a brief discussion of the new type of worker evolved by war conditions and an appeal for justice and democracy in industry.

The material was primarily conceived of as for use among industrial women, although the authors have endeavored to fit the text to a broader use through keeping in mind the needs of the college student, the business man, club woman, social worker, and others.

MARY E. KOLL

*Four bulletins from the Bureau of Education.*²—The first one of the four we have at hand deals with the junior college. Any one who wishes to get a good view of the fundamental changes through which our whole scheme of education is going cannot overlook the important part played by the junior college. This bulletin shows the history of this institution, its definition, present status, and various provisions for its recognition in several states of our country. At the

¹ ELEANOR L. LATTIMORE and RAY S. TRENT, *Legal Recognition of Industrial Women*. New York: Industrial Committee, War Work Council of the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations, 1919. Pp. xiv+91.

² Bulletins of the Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior: No. 35, *The Junior College*; No. 46, *Bibliography of Home Economics*; No. 56, *The Administration of Correspondence-Study Departments of Universities and Colleges*; No. 74, *The Federal Executive Departments as Sources of Information for Libraries*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1919.

close of the main discussion, there is a six-page summary that shows at a glance many, if not all, of the essential features known at the present time about the junior college. Fourteen appendixes appear in the last pages in which are found the different questionnaires used in gathering the information, many tables containing a mass of information, and an extended bibliography. Copies of this and the following bulletins may be had from the Superintendent of Documents Washington, D. C., for a nominal sum.

The second bulletin is a revision of Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 39, 1914, *Education for the Home*, by Dr. Benjamin R. Andrews, with the addition of books published since that date. The pamphlet as now issued contains an exhaustive list of books, charts, bulletins, syllabuses, and periodicals about home economics, and gives the date of publication, place where they can be secured, the price, author, and publisher. In addition to the above, one can find literature on how to teach economics, the source and use of clothing and textiles, economics in the family, foods and cooking, the house and household activities, and the relation of the sciences to home economics. A more complete cataloguing of printed helps along the lines of home economics is not available, perhaps, in the United States.

The third bulletin before us deals with the administration of correspondence departments of universities and colleges. It is not feasible here to go into the details of the bulletin, but a few lines from the preface will indicate the nature of its contents. "An attempt has been made to collect in systematic order the typical practices and methods of correspondence departments, rather than to attempt a statistical statement or tabulation of the extent of any of these practices and methods." At the close of the bulletin the author sums up his conclusions as follows: "This description of the work of correspondence-study departments makes it evident that in the near future there will be need for the further development and standardization of certain operations and methods of administration." Our discussion of this bulletin may be concluded most usefully, therefore, by quoting the suggested points at which this development is likely to take place: "1. The budget system will probably be applied to correspondence-study departments, and systems of accounting developed which will make it possible to determine the cost of each phase of correspondence-study work. 2. One or two standard methods of payment for the preparation of correspondence courses will probably be adopted. 3. There will be a more satisfactory adjustment of the methods of paying instructors. 4. It is probable that the student questionnaires will be used more largely than at present for obtaining data upon the basis of which correspondence courses may be standardized. 5. It is probable that there will be considerable development in the methods of co-ordinating correspondence-study and university records. 6. The relationship which correspondence work bears to resident work will be clarified and more accurately defined."

The fourth bulletin gives information to librarians as to where they can send to get all the information that the United States has to offer to the people. "Brief stories are given in the following pages of the functions and, in some instances, of the accomplishments of the various offices of the Federal Executive Departments which have printed matter of interest to libraries."

Any citizen may send for some of this material listed in this bulletin and get it by the payment of a small sum. The bulletin in question has a great deal of very interesting reading about our government that is not to be found in any other place. Letters from every department of the government, the organization of each department, and first-hand stories of the departments fill 204 pages and form a body of material that is exceedingly difficult to find anywhere else. No text in civics or history is comparable to this bulletin in the body of material that it contains. To match it, one would be compelled to search far and wide to assemble the data.

Conservation of vision in public schools.—In this day of conservation of all resources we are not surprised nor displeased to find for our perusal the latest publication¹ of the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness. Quoting from a letter to the *School Review* from the managing director of the above committee, "Classes for conservation of vision have been formed in a number of cities in several states and having continued long enough to have passed the experimental stage the question of establishing such classes in the public schools throughout the United States has become of such vital interest and inquiries concerning methods of procedure, equipment, selection and training of teachers, standards for entrance, etc., have become so numerous, that there is an evident necessity for a handbook on the subject. Those who have informed themselves of the need of provision in the educational process for meeting the requirements of an unfortunate group—neither blind nor yet wholly competent from a visual standpoint—are of the opinion that this manual should be in the hands of every state and city superintendent of schools, principal, and teacher interested in sight-saving classes."

Besides a history of the movement to organize classes of children who have poor vision, reasons for aiding them in this positive fashion, and the necessary equipment for doing the work, there is quite a full discussion of every other professional and administrative problem that would likely come up in trying to execute proper plans to save this unfortunate class of boys and girls. The Committee, through its secretary, has accomplished what it set out to do, namely, put forth a handbook in which full details for conserving vision are clearly stated.

In the conclusion we find, "The best recommendation for conservation of vision classes comes from the children themselves. They never want to leave when the dismissal bell sounds. They are not truants, although while in the regular grade truancy was perhaps their greatest fault. They are interested, and interest is the magic word in education. They grow independent, because they must learn to do things for themselves. They become confident, for through confidence their trust is won. They go forth messengers of light, because they have been saved from darkness."

Surely this subject is worthy the careful consideration that is here set forth, and when we know that in smaller systems of schools many an unfortunate child has to struggle along as best he can among the normal children, or drop out en-

¹ WINIFRED HATHAWAY, "Manual for Conservation of Vision Classes," *National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness Publications No. 18*. New York: National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness, 1919. Pp. 108. \$0.50.

tirely, it behooves us to pause a moment and take stock of our daily methods and see whether or not we are using just the best judgment in handling boys and girls that we are capable of using.

Boston's effort to increase the wages of her teachers.—It is not a far-fetched statement to say the increase in salaries, especially those of school teachers, has not been commensurate with the increase in the cost of living. Boston recognized this fact to the extent that in the latter part of 1919 she entered into a strenuous campaign to get legislation that would alleviate the troubles contingent upon such low salaries. Consequently the School Committee compiled a mass of statistics on wages of teachers in many towns in Massachusetts and 24 cities of over 200,000 population throughout the United States.

These figures were tabulated and published in two pamphlets¹ which make a very convenient reference for the very latest data on teachers' wages. The School Committee proposed the new schedule on the principles that (a) the largest proposed increase in salary goes to the lowest paid teachers in the service; (b) some increase in salary is proposed for everyone in the employ of the School Committee; and (c) the amount of proposed increases and the readjustments conform as closely as possible to the supply of teachers.

Quoting the *Educator-Journal* of Indianapolis, "Hod-carriers, \$1,200; elementary teachers, \$800 is a contrast of annual incomes in the cases of two classes of workers in two of our large cities. In the same cities blacksmiths receive \$1,700 per year, and bricklayers \$1,900. Some day, perhaps, society will consider the teacher worthy of as big pay as those that work in stone and iron and other inanimate things."

Administrative officers who are contemplating a more ample remuneration for their teachers will do well to secure these two pamphlets and use those portions that will best suit their own localities. We believe Boston has shown the way to do the square thing by teachers and we are anxious to see the day when every community that is not in poverty will cease being parsimonious with the most valuable service it receives.

Report of a conference on educational measurements.—In April, 1919, the Sixth Annual Conference on Educational Measurements was held at the University of Indiana and, judging from the report,² it must have been a decided success. In this report one can find very fruitful discussions of the group test as a means to classify intelligence in high school, grades, in the factory, office, and many other places. Language and grammatical errors, the relation of physical environ-

¹"Increased Salaries for Teachers and Members of the Supervising Staff of the Boston Public Schools." Pp. 47. "Salaries of Public School Teachers in Cities of over 200,000 Population in the United States and in Selected Cities and Towns in Massachusetts," *School Document No. 19*. Pp. 96. Boston: Boston Public Schools, 1919.

²"Sixth Conference on Educational Measurements," *Bulletin of the Extension Division, Indiana University*, Vol. V, No. 1. Bloomington, Indiana: The Extension Division of Indiana University, 1919. Pp. 122. \$0.50.

ment and mental ability, the scientific construction of the curriculum, and recent developments in spelling are some of the other vital educational problems that were handled at this conference by some of the best educators in our country.

As stated in the introduction, "The key-note of the meeting was a plea for diagnosis and more complete interpretation of educational measurements in order that the use of educational tests may result in the greatest possible improvement of instruction." One of the interesting features in carrying out this program was the detailed explanations which were given showing how mental tests could be used to improve the selection of clerical helpers in factories. Beside the scientific procedure, there was shown the humanitarian side of helpfulness to the occasional employee who does not seem to fit or make good. One cannot read this material and pass it up without a second thought.

The extended discussion of curriculum-building is very timely and enlightening for the school man or woman who wishes to keep abreast of the very latest discussions along this line. This article emphasizes the good qualities in both extremes of the argument as we hear it today and then throws in a few extra sidelights that comport with good sense. Another article that is exceptionally worth while is the one indicating what the next steps in educational measurement must be. In the midst of the discussion the author gives eleven checks to hold against each test that comes into the market. These are quite pertinent, for we are all aware of the fact that many tests now on the market have been thrown there with too much haste.

The School of Education of the University of Indiana is to be congratulated on the effort to put before the educators of Indiana such a splendid program. The report of this conference should be studied by every wide-awake school man and woman in the country.

A survey of the schools of Delaware.—Not for some time have we been so forcibly struck with the thought that there are school plants in America today that are so much behind the times that they seem to belong in a forgotten age. But this feeling steals upon one as he reads the *General Report on School Buildings and Grounds of Delaware*,¹ a study recently made by Professor Strayer of Teachers College and his co-laborers. The general situation is summed up in the preface of the report as follows: "The first impression the reader obtains is one of discouragement. Conditions are undoubtedly bad, but the people of Delaware today are anxious that things which are wrong should be righted as quickly as possible. If there were no prospect of improving our educational conditions, it would be a cruel humiliation to publish such a record as this. Happily we are in a position of being able not only to make the bad good and the good better in the matter of physical equipment of our schools, but all over the state the best citizens are anxious that these things be done and done at once."

If the reader is in any way interested in knowing the condition of school plants in different sections of the United States, he can scarcely afford to overlook this report. There are conditions described in it that make one wonder how one

¹ GEORGE D. STRAYER, N. L. ENGELHARDT, and F. W. HART, *General Report on School Buildings and Grounds of Delaware*. Wilmington, Delaware: Service Citizens of Delaware, 1919. Pp. 222.

of our oldest states could live this long in a country that boasts so much of its civilization and not "soak in" a little of it. However, it is not for us to judge. The scientific survey portrays the facts. Photographs and quantitative material are given in abundance and it is to be hoped that the good people of Delaware will remedy matters without delay. In justification of the strong statement made above, we cite the reader to the very much stronger ones found in the report.

*Another volume dealing with the project method in education.*¹—The author of this book sets forth in clear terms one of the existing needs in education, namely, to get away from the "bookish, theoretical education of former days." He shows that there was considerable motivation in school work during the war period and that it will be a mistake to discard this method now that the war is over. Outside institutions should call upon and co-operate with the schools now as much as they did in war times. Throughout the book the author tries to be specific about the different points made. He defines the term "project" as referring to both manual and mental activities. Any worthwhile, purposeful activity that is entered into whole-heartedly is a project. A manual project is any effort looking toward the completion of a particular unit of activity, which to the child has some value that makes the work meaningful. A mental project is one where one may substitute imagery for concrete materials, and without engaging in manual activity may "think through" a complete unit of purposeful activity.

There are times, however, when his distinctions are not exactly clear to the reader. For example, he says that there is a distinct difference between a project and a problem due to the direction toward which one is looking at a unit of activity. If it is the teacher doing the surveying of the unit it is a project; if it is the student looking at the unit it becomes a problem. The two terms are not clearly separated in the minds of educators yet and necessarily there will be misunderstandings for some time to come.

In the first three chapters there is an attempt to define and give the origin of the project method in teaching. The following chapter shows how essential such a method is to good teaching. The next chapter is a companion to the former one in that motivation and interest go hand in hand with project teaching and give that method life and soul. The next two chapters are devoted to classifying the different kinds of projects we may find in school work and the different mental processes through which a child goes when he works out a project.

It is in the next three chapters that we find the author building up a concept of his own which is probably new to workers in the field of education. He says that a project-question is a simple mental difficulty which consists of one question and its answer. If two or more of these project-questions are grouped so that the answers to all center on one topic, the unit now may be termed a project-exercise. If several of these project-exercises are needed to solve a problem of considerable difficulty, the procedure may be termed a project-problem. Just how valuable this is to teaching remains to be seen by trial, but it is the opinion of the writer that these are new terms that mean no more than what good teachers have been doing for a long time.

¹ MENDEL E. BRANOM, *The Project Method in Education*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1919. Pp. 282. \$1.75.

In chapter xi the author sets forth emphatically the need for considerable work in manual projects in school, especially in the lower grades. He specifies the advantages to be gained by such a procedure and he is quite right in reminding educators that we must not go to the extreme in this method and neglect the mental projects. A project shop is needed so equipped that it will serve the needs of the various subjects in the curriculum.

In the chapter on the project method in history, the author says that the history of the future must be less provincial; that it must emphasize the history of the present time as never before in education; and that the project method is invaluable in giving an understanding of social conditions, and cannot be excelled in inspiring and stimulating proper reactions. Three types of projects appear in history work: reading history for enjoyment, gathering information, and interpreting events in the light of other events. The author deplors the unscientific presentation of facts and truth in texts of the past. The project-problem attitude will come nearer the truth, and "Truthful dealing with the past will help the present generation to see the errors and the results of the errors, and will permit them to direct the course for the future with greater probability of justice." [Page 209.]

Let the children lead in the formulation of the problems as far as possible is the author's advice. He suggests thirty-one problems on pages 212-13, all hinging around the Great War. If the immediate present does not suggest enough to cover the past, then bring the past into the work. Analyze society to find the problems. Many problems can be obtained from the following: expansion of the American people, industrial history, cities, social and political history, and the United States a world power. He then suggests twenty-one problems to be used in connection with chronological judgment. Causal judgment will be trained in the solution of problems.

In some such detail the author shows how the method can be applied to geography.

The last two chapters are devoted to the reorganization of the curriculum and the training of teachers. Both are timely topics and worth anyone's time to study.

The bibliography is quite extensive but does not include a few of the best references on the subject.

*Bulletins on industrial education.*¹—The movement for systematic industrial education has received impetus during recent years from two sets of circumstances. In the first place, the prosecution of the war called for a maximum production of the materials of war. But enlistment and conscription produced a shortage of industrial workers. During this emergency the leaders of industry

¹ Bulletins of the Department of Labor, United States Training Service: No. 14, *Training in Industrial Plants*; No. 16, *Training in the Men's Suit and Overcoat Industry*; No. 18, *Industrial Training in the Overalls Industry*; No. 19, *Training for Shirt Makers*; No. 21, *Training in the Shoe Industry*; No. 22, *Courses of Instruction in Piano Making*; No. 24, *Industrial Training for Foundry Workers*; No. 25, *Courses of Instruction for Workers in Cotton Mills*; No. 26, *The Foreman*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1919.

found that their only recourse for a maximum production lay in the systematic training of the workmen. Accordingly, the Department of Labor of the United States created the United States Training Service to assist the leaders of plants manufacturing war materials in the organization and administration of a system of industrial training.

The second set of circumstances giving impetus to a more carefully planned system of industrial training relates to the probable intense competition which American industries will receive in the near future at the hands of the war-stricken nations of Europe. American industrial leaders have sensed the need, under peace conditions, for producing a quantity and quality of American product that can hold its own in the markets of the world in the face of the intense competition which Europe is bound to offer.

The Department of Labor has accepted the responsibility of stimulating and assisting American industry to prepare for this oncoming industrial competition. It has retained the United States Training Service and, through this body, is issuing a series of bulletins on industrial education. These bulletins purpose to show the need of industrial education to meet the new industrial conditions produced by the World War, and to deal with the various problems of industrial education which arise in meeting these conditions.

The bulletins are of interest to the educator. In the first place, they are very suggestive in showing the relation of education to developing social needs. They abound in facts and figures showing the economic and human waste which can be avoided through proper attention to industrial training. Again, the bulletins are very suggestive in indicating that education consists in the acquiring of specific abilities. Industrial leaders have realized the necessity of making the objectives of education specific and definite. The public school has much to accomplish in this direction. Again, the bulletins are interesting to the educator from the standpoint of their emphasis on how the workmen learn together with their learning difficulties. Finally, one is impressed with the emphasis given to the conditions of effective learning such as the activity of the learner, interest, and the learner's physical condition.

One is gratified to see reflected in this increased emphasis on industrial education an effort on the part of the Department of Labor to treat the nation's industrial workers as real men and women having human desires and interests and feelings but who, because of economic necessity, have been cut off from the opportunity that has been extended to other folk. Nothing short of such depth of insight and breadth of outlook can prepare America for an intense industrial competition or can solve her social and economic problems.

A notable study of child welfare.—Several years ago the National Child Labor Committee was created to make war on child labor. This committee is still actively engaged in the cause for which it was created but within very recent years it has extended its activities to include the whole field of child welfare. At the instigation of the Kentucky Child Labor Association and the Kentucky State Board of Health an inquiry concerning child labor in Kentucky was recently instituted by the National Child Labor Committee under the special direction of Dr. E. N. Clopper.

The volume¹ which reports the findings of this investigation represents a very significant contribution to the literature of the child welfare movement. Under the stimulus of these reported findings childhood should have a better chance in Kentucky and in other states as well, for the setting forth of such unfavorable conditions for a safe childhood as this volume reveals cannot fail to set forces at work that will no longer tolerate such conditions.

The following chapter headings will give some notion of the kind of child welfare conditions which were investigated by the Committee and reported in the volume: "Health," "Schools," "Recreation," "Rural Life," "Child Labor," "Law and Administration."

The following excerpt, taken from the chapter on schools, is indicative of the type of findings with which the volume abounds.

"In Christian County the fifth grade history class was reciting. The teacher asked the question: 'How did Abraham Lincoln spend his early years?' There was an immediate interest shown and hands waved in the air. The teacher called on a small boy who volunteered, 'He spent his early years a-readin.' Sometimes he'd read all night.' The teacher was visibly annoyed. 'No, that's wrong. Does any one know the answer?' This time only a few hands responded, but one little girl timidly suggested that 'he spent his early years working hard and studying all night by the firelight.' At this the teacher closed her book, delivered a sharp lecture on their lack of preparation and gave the correct answer: 'Abraham Lincoln spent his early years in hardship.'"

A definite positive program for the improvement of child welfare conditions is incorporated in the discussion of health, schools, rural life, child labor, etc. The world can be made safe for childhood only when such a positive program is launched and executed.

A suitable book for current history classes.—One of the first inquiries that one makes concerning any war is "What were its causes?" This question has been briefly answered as it relates to most of the wars in the remote past and answered in some detail as it relates to the wars since 1870 in a current publication on the general subject, war and its causes.² The publication is based on the idea that it is idle to talk of world peace without an intelligent world understanding. *The Causes of War* is designed to meet the need of a systematic organization of the great mass of material concerning the war. It gives all the essential points, and is equally suited to the busy student, teacher, or general reader.

The work includes not only an outline and study of the World War together with the official peace negotiations, but also a survey of all the wars that preceded with particular emphasis upon those since 1870. The book makes us realize what an important bearing they had on the late conflict. The text of the league of nations is given in full.

The work is so clearly and logically written that it is particularly valuable for use in current history classes.

¹ *Child Welfare in Kentucky*. Under the direction of Edward N. Clopper. New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1919. Pp. 322. \$1.25.

² ROBERT EARL SWINDLER, *The Causes of War*—Including an outline and study of the World War and Official Peace Negotiations. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1920. Pp. 269. \$1.75.

A new syllabus in high-school history.—As early as 1880 the Regents of the University of the State of New York prepared brief syllabuses of history, civics, and economics for secondary schools. From time to time since this date these syllabuses have been revised and enlarged. The latest revision, however, is confined solely to history.¹ It is the work of a special committee working under the chairmanship of Mr. A. W. Skinner, assistant director of the Examination and Inspection Division of the State Department of Education.

There is outlined in some detail in the syllabus a three-year course in world history and a two-year course in world history, the first being intended for a major sequence in history and the second a minor sequence. In the major sequence the first year is devoted to a general survey of the development of world civilization to 1789; the second year to a more detailed study of world civilization 1789-1919, emphasizing English and American history in their world relations; and the third year to a more detailed study of American history, institutions, and government, topically treated. The minor sequence, or the two-year course, is made up of selected materials from the two first courses in the major sequence and the third course exactly as described above.

The outstanding characteristics of the syllabus as a whole are: (1) emphasis on world history; (2) emphasis on ancient history at the expense of medieval; (3) the topical organization of American history; (4) making colonial history an integral part of world history; (5) emphasis on the course idea in history; and (6) the innovation of major and minor sequences.

II. CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED DURING THE PAST MONTH

A. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- BOGARDUS, EMORY S. *Essentials of Americanisation*. Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1919. Pp. 303.
- Child Welfare in Kentucky*. Under the direction of Edward N. Clopper. New York: National Child Labor Committee, 1919. Pp. 322. \$1.25.
- EARNEST, W. W. *A War Catechism: Questions and Answers Concerning the Great World War*. Champaign, Illinois: W. W. Earnest, superintendent of schools. Without cover, \$0.15; in quantities, \$0.10 each. With cover, \$0.20; in quantities, \$0.12 each.
- HATHAWAY, WINIFRED. "Manual for Conservation of Vision Classes," *National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness Publications No. 18*. New York: National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness, 1919. Pp. 108. \$0.50.
- "Increased Salaries for Teachers and Members of the Supervising Staff of the Boston Public Schools." Boston: Boston Public Schools, 1919. Pp. 47.
- McMURRY, CHARLES A. *Teaching by Projects*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920. Pp. vii+257. \$1.32.

¹ "Syllabus in History," *University of the State of New York Bulletin No. 689*. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York, 1919. Pp. 212.

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